THE SCOTS MAGAZINE,

For FEBRUARY 1800.

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EDINBURGH:

Sold by JAMES WATSON, No 40. South Bridge,
And by the Principal Booksellers in Town and Country.
And by T. KAY, Strand; and R. B. SCOTT, Brydges Street,
Covent-Garden, London.

NEW DISCOVERIES.

Artificial Cold.

A method has been lately diſcovered of producing a degree of artificial cold much more intenſe than was ever before known. It conſiſts in the ſimple mixture of ſulphuric and muriatic ether; an inſtaneous evaporation takes place the moment of union, accompanied by ſo rapid an abſorption of heat, as not only to congeal mercury, but even to reduce the gazeous nitrous acid to a liquid form.

Supplying the place of Horn for Lanthorns.

An ingenious method of ſupplying the place of Horn for Lanthorns, &c. has been lately practiſed in France. It conſiſts in dipping a piece of network of very fine braſs-wire in a ſtrong decotion of iſinglaſs, which fills up the meſhes, and is converted by drying into a hard tranſparent plate. It may be made of any thickneſs by dipping the netting a ſufficient number of times, and when varniſhed, for protection againſt the effects of moiſture, is found to be as durable as horn.

Method of making Vinegar.

To one peck of crab apples bruiſed, put 9 gallons of cold ſpring water in a tub; let them ſtand about nine days; cover the tub over with a cloth, ſtir the crabs and water once, at leaſt, every day; then ſtrain it through a hair-cloth and put it into a caſk, iron-bound and painted. To every gallon of the liquor, put one pound of ſugar, and ſtir it in the caſk a few times, to diſſolve the ſugar. Let the caſk ſtand where it will have as much of the ſun as you can, and cover it with a tile to keep inſects and rain from it.

Extracting Oil from Grape Stones.

In various parts of Italy a uſeful oil is extracted from grape-ſtones, a ſubſtance that elſewhere is made no uſe of, but which might perhaps be worth the attention of the makers of raiſin wine in this country, and of other perſons who are in the habit of uſing large quantities of the above fruit.

In order to ſeparate the ſeeds from the huſks and refuſe matter, the *mare* is put into a bucket with ſome water, and worked about with the hands till the ſeeds, from their ſuperior weight, have fallen to the bottom of the veſſel. They are then to be removed and dried in the ſun, or by any other way, as ſoon as poſſible. When a ſufficient quantity is collected, the whole is to be grinded in the ſame kind of mill that is uſed for hemp and coleſeed: being then *cold drawn*, a fine oil is procured, which is ſcarcely diſtinguiſhable from common olive oil. The refuſe matter being ſcalded in a little hot water, and again ſubjected to the preſs, yields a freſh portion of oil, though of inferior quality, which burns excellently well in a lamp, giving out no unpleaſant odour, and leſs ſmoke than either rape or coleſeed oil. It is alſo uſed in the Parmeſan, for preparing the beſt kind of calf-ſkin leather.

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BIOGRAPHICAL ACCOUNT OF JOSIAH TUCKER, D. D. DEAN OF GLOUCESTER.

THIS venerable divine, ſo long and ſo juſtly celebrated for his commercial ſagacity, was born at Laugharn, in Caermarthenſhire, in the year 1712. His father was a farmer, and having a ſmall eſtate left him at or near Aberyſtwith, in Cardiganſhire, he removed thither; and perceiving that his ſon had a turn for learning, he ſent him to Ruthin ſchool in Derbyſhire, where he made ſo reſpectable a progreſs in the claſſics, that he obtained an exhibition at Jeſus College, Oxford. It is generally underſtood that ſeveral of his journies to and from Oxford were performed on foot, with a ſtick on his ſhoulder, and bundle at the end of it. Thus it might be ſaid by him, as by Simonides, "*Omnia mea mecum porto.*" At the age of 23 he entered into holy orders, and ſerved a curacy for ſome time in Glouceſterſhire. About 1737 he became curate of Stephen's church in Briſtol, and was appointed minor-canon in the cathedral of that city. Here he attracted the notice of Dr Joſeph Butler, then Biſhop of Briſtol, and afterwards of Durham, who appointed Mr Tucker his domeſtic chaplain. By the intereſt of this prelate Mr Tucker obtained a prebendal ſtall in the cathedral of Briſtol; and on the death of Mr Catcott, well known by his treatiſe on the Deluge, and a volume of excellent ſermons, he became rector of St Stephen. The inhabitants of that pariſh conſiſt chiefly of merchants and tradeſmen, a circumſtance which greatly aided his natural inclination for commercial and political ſtudies. When the famous bill was brought into the Houſe of Commons for the naturalization of the Jews, Mr Tucker, conſidering the ſubject with an enlarged mind, took a decided part in favour of the meaſure, and was, indeed, its moſt able advocate. The opponents of the bill, tranſported with an extraordinary zeal for the Chriſtian Religion, which they affected to think was in danger by this ſtep, treated the divine with great rudeneſs and virulence on the occaſion. He was not only ſeverely attacked in pamphlets, newſpapers, and magazines; but the pious people of Briſtol, who had, perhaps, hardened their hearts into intolerance by a traffic in human fleſh, burnt his effigy dreſſed in cannonicals, together with his letters on behalf of naturilization. In 1753 he publiſhed an able pamphlet on the "Turkey Trade," in which he demonſtrates the evils that reſult to trade in general from chartered companies. At this period Lord Clare (afterward Earl Nugent) was returned to Parliament for Briſtol, which honour he obtained chiefly through the ſtrenuous exertions of Mr Tucker, whoſe influence in his large and wealthy pariſh was almoſt deciſive on that occaſion. In return for this favour the Earl procured for him the deanery of Glouceſter, in 1758, at which time he took his degree of Doctor in Divinity. So great was his reputation for commercial knowledge, that Dr Thomas Hayter, afterwards Biſhop

hop of London, who was then tutor to his preſent Majeſty, applied to Dr Tucker to draw up a diſſertation on this ſubject for the peruſal of his royal pupil. It was accordingly done, and gave great ſatisfaction. This work, under the title of "The Elements of Commerce," was printed in quarto, but never publiſhed. Dr Warburton, however, who, after having been member of the ſame chapter with the Dean at Briſtol, became Biſhop of Glouceſter, thought very differently from the reſt of mankind, in reſpect to his talents and favourite purſuits, and ſaid once, in his coarſe manner, that "his Dean's trade was religion, and religion his trade." But in refutation of this charge we might produce the Dean's various publications on moral and religious ſubjects, which ſhew him to be not only deeply verſed in theology, but alſo, what is far better, a man of genuine philanthropy. In the year 1771, when a ſtrong attempt was made to procure an abolition of ſubſcription to the thirty-nine articles, Dr Tucker came forward as an able and moderate advocate of the church of England. About this time he publiſhed "Directions for Travellers," in which he lays down excellent rules, by which gentlemen who viſit foreign countries may not only improve their own minds, but turn their obſervations to the benefit of their native country. The Dean was an attentive obſerver of the American conteſt. He examined the affair with a very different eye from that of a party-man, or an intereſted merchant; and he diſcovered, as he conceived, that both ſides would be better off by an abſolute ſeparation. Mr Burke's language in the Houſe of Commons reſpecting the Dean's propoſal was, indeed, exceeding harſh and illiberal. In his famous ſpeech on American taxation, April 13th, 1774, this famous orator called him "the advocate of the court faction; and I ſuppoſe," he adds, "that his earneſt labours in this vineyard will raiſe him to a biſhopric." The Dean was actually roufed into reſentment on this occaſion, and he accordingly publiſhed a letter to Mr Burke, in which he not only vindicates the purity of his own principles, but retorts upon his adverſary in very forcible and manly terms. The ground of Mr Burke's enmity to the Dean, was the latter's ſtrenuous oppoſition to his being admitted to repreſent Briſtol in Parliament. Dr Tucker had a high opinion of Lord Nugent's Parliamentary conduct and abilities; added to which he owed him much on the ſcore of gratitude. He therefore conſidered himſelf as bound to ſupport his intereſt in Briſtol with all the power he poſſeſſed. This excited Mr Burke's diſlike to the Dean of Glouceſter, and ſharpened his wit on the ſubject of his political opinions. When the terrors of an invaſion were very prevalent, in 1779, the Dean circulated, in a variety of periodical publications, ſome of the moſt ſenſible obſervations that were ever made on the ſubject, in order to quiet the fears of the people. In 1781 the Dean publiſhed, what he had printed long before, "A Treatiſe on Civil Government," in which his principal deſign is to counteract the doctrines of the moſt celebrated Mr Locke and his followers. The book made a conſiderable noiſe, and was very ſharply attacked by ſeveral able writers on the democratic ſide of the queſtion, particularly by Dr Towers. The year following he cloſed his political career with a pamphlet intitled "*Cui Bono?*" in which he balances the profit and loſs of each of the belligerent powers, and recapitulates all his former poſitions on the ſubject of war and colonial poſſeſſions. His publications ſince that period have conſiſted of ſome tracts on the commercial regulations of Ireland, on the exportation of woollens, and on the iron trade. In 1777 he publiſhed ſeventeen practical ſermons, in

one volume, octavo. In the year 1778, one of his pariſhioners, Miſs Peloquin, a maiden lady of large fortune and moſt exemplary piety, bequeathed to the Dean her dwelling-houſe in Queen-ſquare, Briſtol, with a very handſome legacy, as a teſtimony of her great eſteem for his worth and talents. In the year 1781 the Dean married a lady of the name of Crowe, who reſided at Glouceſter. It ſhould be recorded to his praiſe, that though enjoying but very moderate preferment (for to a man of no paternal eſtate, or other eccleſiaſtical dignity, the deanry of Glouceſter is no very advantageous ſituation), he has notwithſtanding been a liberal benefactor to ſeveral public inſtitutions, and a diſtinguiſhed patron of merit. The celebrated John Henderſon, of Pembroke College, Oxford, was ſent to the univerſity, and ſupported there, at the Dean's expence, when he had no means whatever of gratifying his ardent deſire for ſtudy. We ſhall mention another inſtance of generoſity in this place, which reflects the greateſt honour upon the Dean. About the year 1790 he thought of reſigning his rectory in Briſtol, and without communicating his deſign to any other perſon, he applied to the Chancellor, in whoſe gift it is, for leave to quit it in favour of his curate, a moſt deſerving man, with a large family. His Lordſhip was willing enough that he ſhould give up the living, but he refuſed him the liberty of nominating his ſucceſſor. On this the Dean reſolved to hold the living himſelf, till he could find a fit opportunity to ſucceed in his object. After weighing the matter more deliberately, he communicated his wiſh to his pariſhioners, and adviſed them to draw up a petition to the Chancellor in favour of the curate. This was accordingly done, and ſigned by all of them, without any exception, either on the part of the diſſenters or others. The Chancellor being touched with this teſtimony of love between a clergyman and his people, yielded at laſt to the application; in conſequence of which the Dean cheerfully reſigned the living to a ſucceſſor well qualified to tread in his ſteps. Since that time he has reſided chiefly at Glouceſter, viewing his approaching diſſolution with the placid mind of a Chriſtian, conſcious of having done his duty both to God and man.

The following is a tolerably correct liſt of the Dean's works:

Theological and Controverſial.—1. A Sermon, preached before the Governors of the Infirmary of Briſtol, 1745. 2. Letters in Behalf of the Naturalization of the Jews. 3. Apology for the Church of England, 1772. 4. Six Sermons, 12mo. 1773. 5. Letter to Dr Kippis, on his Vindication of the Proteſtant Diſſenting Miniſters. 6. Two Sermons and Four Tracts. 7. View of the Difficulties of the Trinitarian, Arian, and Socinian Syſtems, and Seventeen Sermons, 1777.

Political and Commercial.—8. A pamphlet on the Turkey trade. 9. A brief View of the Advantages and Diſadvantages which attend a Trade with France. 10. Reflections on the Expediency of Naturalizing foreign Proteſtants, and a letter to a Friend on the ſame Subject. 11. The Pleas and Arguments of the Mother Country and the Colonies ſtated. 12. A Letter to Mr Burke. 13. Quere, Whether a Connection with, or Separation from, America, would be for national Advantage? 14. Anſwers to Objections againſt the Separation from America. 15. A Treatiſe on Civil Government. 16. *Cui Bono?* 17. Four Letters on national Subjects. 18. Sequel to Sir William Jones on Government. 19. On the Diſpute between Great Britain and Ireland. 20. Several Papers under the Signature of Caſſandra, &c. on the Difficulties attendant on an Invaſion. 21. A Treatiſe on Commerce. (M. Coxe,

in his Life of Sir Robert Walpole, says that this was printed, but never published.)

Miscellaneous.—22. Directions for Travellers. 23. Cautions against the Use of Spiritous Liquors. 24. A Tract against the Diversions of Cock-fighting, &c.

ACCOUNT OF THE FAMOUS JOSEPH BRANDT, THE AMERICAN INDIAN.

From Weld's Travels in North America.

BRANDT, at a very early age, was sent to a college in New England, where, being possessed of a good capacity, he soon made very considerable progress in the Greek and Latin languages. Uncommon pains were taken to instil into his mind the truths of the gospel. He professed himself to be a warm admirer of the principles of christianity, and in hopes of being able to convert his nation on returning to them, he absolutely translated the gospel of St Matthew into the Mohawk language; he also translated the established form of prayer of the church of England. Before Brandt, however, had finished his course of studies, the American war broke out, and fired with that spirit of glory which seems to have been implanted by nature in the breast of the Indian, he immediately quitted the college, repaired to his native village, and shortly afterwards, with a considerable body of his nation, joined some British troops under the command of Sir John Johnston. Here he distinguished himself by his valour in many different engagements, and was soon raised, not only to the rank of a war chief, but also to that of a captain in his Majesty's service.

It was not long, however, before Brandt sullied his reputation in the British army. A skirmish took place with a body of American troops; the action was warm, and Brandt was shot by a musket-ball in the heel; but the Americans in the end were defeated, and an officer with about sixty men taken prisoners. The officer, after having delivered up his sword, had entered into conversation with Colonel Johnston, who commanded the British troops, and they were talking together in the most friendly manner, when Brandt, having stollen slyly behind them, laid the American officer lifeless on the ground with a blow of his tomahawk. The indignation of Sir John Johnston, as may readily be supposed, was roused by such an act of treachery, and he resented it in the warmest language. Brandt listened to him unconcernedly, and when he had finished, told him, that he was sorry what he had done had caused his displeasure, but that indeed his heel was extremely painful at the moment, and he could not help revenging himself on the only chief of the party that he saw taken. Since he had killed the officer, his heel, he added, was much less painful to him than it had been before.

When the war broke out, the Mohawks resided on the Mohawk River, in the state of New York, but on peace being made, they emigrated into Upper Canada, and their principal village is now situated on the Grand River, which falls into Lake Erie on the north side, about sixty miles from the town of Newark or Niagara; there Brandt at present resides. He has built a comfortable habitation for himself, and any stranger that visits him may rest assured of being well received, and of finding a plentiful table well served every day. He has no less than thirty or forty negroes, who attend to his horses, cultivate his grounds, &c. These poor creatures are kept in the greatest subjection, and they dare not attempt to make their escape, for he has assured them, that if they did so he would follow them himself, though it were to the confines

of

of Georgia, and would tomohawk them wherever he met them. They know his diſpoſition too well not to think that he would adhere ſtrictly to his word.

Brandt receives from Government half pay as a captain, beſides annual preſents, &c. which in all amount, it is ſaid, to 500l. per annum. We had no ſmall curioſity, as you may well imagine, to ſee this Brandt, and we procured letters of introduction to him from the governor's ſecretary, and from different officers and gentlemen of his acquaintance, with an intention of proceeding from Newark to his village. Moſt unluckily, however, on the day before that of our reaching the town of Newark or Niagara, he had embarked on board a veſſel for Kingſton, at the oppoſite end of the lake. You may judge of Brandt's conſequence, when I tell you, that a lawyer of Niagara, who croſſed lake Ontaria in the ſame veſſel with us, from Kingſton, where he had been detained for ſome time by contrary winds, informed us, the day after our arrival at Niagara, that by his not having reached that place in time to tranſact ſome law buſineſs for Brandt, and which had conſequently been given to another perſon, he ſhould be a loſer of one hundred pounds at leaſt.

Brandt's ſagacity led him, early in life, to diſcover that the Indians had been made the dupe of every foreign power that had got footing in America; and, indeed, could he have had any doubts on the ſubject, they would have been removed when he ſaw the Britiſh, after having demanded and received the aſſiſtance of the Indians in the American war, ſo ungenerouſly and unjuſtly yield up the whole of the Indian territories, eaſt of the Miſſiſippi, and ſouth of the lakes, to the people of the United States; to the very enemies, in ſhort, they had made to themſelves at the requeſt of the Britiſh. He perceived with regret that the Indians, by eſpouſing the quarrels of the whites, and by eſpouſing different intereſts, were weakening themſelves; whereas, if they remained aloof, and were guided by only one policy, they would ſoon become formidable, and be treated with more reſpect; he formed the bold ſcheme, therefore, of uniting the Indians together in one grand confederacy, and for this purpoſe ſent meſſengers to different chiefs, propoſing that a general meeting ſhould be held of the heads of every tribe, to take the ſubject into conſideration; but certain of the tribes, ſuſpicious of Brandt's deſigns, and fearful that he was bent upon acquiring power for himſelf by this meaſure, oppoſed it with all their might. Brandt has in conſequence become extremely obnoxious to many of the moſt warlike, and with ſuch a jealous eye do they now regard him, that it would not be perfectly ſafe for him to venture to the upper country.

He has managed the affairs of his own people with great ability, and leaſed out their ſuperfluous lands for them, for long terms of years, by which meaſure a certain annual revenue is enſured to the nation, probably as long as it will remain a nation. He wiſely judged, that it was much better to do ſo than to ſuffer the Mohawks, as many other tribes had done, to ſell their poſſeſſions by piecemeal, the ſums of money they received for which, however great, would ſoon be diſſipated if paid to them at once.

Whenever the affairs of his nation ſhall permit him to do ſo, Brandt declares it to be his intention to ſit down to the further ſtudy of the Greek language, of which he profeſſes himſelf to be a great admirer, and to tranſlate from the original, into the Mohawk language, more of the New Teſtament; yet this ſame man, ſhortly before we arrived at Niagara, killed his only ſon with his own hand. The ſon, it ſeems, was a drunken good for nothing fellow, who had often

ten avowed his intention of deſtroying his father. One evening he abſolutely entered the appartment of his father and had begun to grapple with him, perhaps with a view to put his unnatural threats into execution, when Brandt drew a ſhort ſword, and felled him to the ground. Brandt ſpeaks of this affair with regret, but at the ſame time without emotion which another perſon than an Indian might be ſuppoſed to feel. He conſoles himſelf for the act, by thinking that he has benefited the nation, by ridding them of a raſcal.

Brandt wears his hair in the Indian ſtyle, and alſo the Indian dreſs; inſtead of the wrapper, or blanket, he wears a ſhort coat, ſimilar to a hunting frock.

ACCOUNT OF ROBERT, FIRST EARL OF ANCRAM.

From Pinkerton's Scottiſh Gallery.

THIS nobleman, deſcended of Sir Andrew Ker, of Fernyhirſt, in Roxburghſhire, and direct male lineal anceſtor of the preſent Lothian family, was firſt, Gentleman, and afterwards, Lord of the Bedchamber to Charles I. who advanced him in 1633, to the dignity of the peerage by the titles of Earl of Ancram, Lord Ker of Niſbet, Long Newton, and Dolphington.

Lord Clarendon ſays of King Charles, "that he ſaw and obſerved men long before he received them about his perſon;" and as other hiſtorians, leſs partial to this monarch agree, however much they have differed reſpecting his kingly virtues, that he was eminent for every quality and endowment which adorns the ſphere of private life; his affection and favours are ſurely to be conſidered as honourable to thoſe on whom they were conferred: the Earl of Ancram, it is unqueſtionable, with but a ſhort interminion, enjoyed both for a long ſeries of years; and of this diſtinction he has not only ſhewed himſelf worthy by his probity, his taſte and accompliſhments, but alſo by his faithful adherence to Charles in every viciſſitude of fortune throughout his diſaſtrous reign; an adherence, by which upon the death of this unfortunate prince, it appeared that he had become ſo obnoxious to the prevailing party as to be under the neceſſity of retiring into Holland, where he experienced many hardſhips, and died, before the reſtoration, at a very advanced age. He was twice married, firſt to Elizabeth, daughter of Mr Murray of Blackbarony, by whom he had a ſon, William, afterwards Earl of Lothian; ſecondly to Lady Ann Stanley, daughter of William 6th Earl of Derby, and ſiſter to James 7th Earl of that name, who ſuffered at Bolton for aſſiſting Charles II.; by her he left a ſon, Charles, who ſucceeded him as Earl of Ancram, and four daughters.

ANECDOTES.

From Strutt's View of the Dreſs and Habits of the People of England.

Sir Philip Calthrop and John Drakes.

THE propenſity of perſons of low eſtate to imitate the faſhions of thoſe above them, has been adverted to ſeveral times in the courſe of this chapter; and now, by way of concluſion, I ſhall add a ſhort ſtory from Camden, in which this propenſity is very properly ridiculed. "I will tell you," ſays the venerable antiquary, "how Sir Philip Calthrop purged John Drakes, the ſhoemaker of Norwich, in the time of Henry VIII. of the proud humour which our people have to be of the gentleman's cut.—This knight bought on a time as much fine French tawny cloth as ſhould make him a gown, and ſent it to his taylor's to be made. John Drakes, a ſhoemaker, of that town coming

coming to the ſaid taylor's, and ſeeing the knight's gown-cloth lying there, and liking it well, cauſed the taylor to buy for him as much of the ſame cloth, at the like price, to the ſame intent; and, further, he bade him make it in the ſame faſhion that the knight would have his made of. Not long after, the knight coming to the taylor to take meaſure of his gown, he perceived the like gown-cloth lying there, and aſked the taylor whoſe it was. "It belongs," quoth the taylor, "to John Drakes, who will have it made in the ſelf ſame faſhion that yours is made of."—"Well," ſaid the knight, "in good time be it: I will have mine as full of cuts as thy ſhears can make it."—"It ſhall be done," ſaid the taylor. Whereupon, becauſe the time drew near, he made haſte to finiſh both their garments. John Drakes had no time to go to the taylor's till Chriſtmas-day, for ſerving of his cuſtomers, when he had hoped to have worn his gown; perceiving the ſame to be full of cuts, he began to ſwear at the taylor for making his gown after that ſort. "I have done nothing," quoth the taylor, "but what you bade me; for, as Sir Philip Calthrop's gown is, even ſo have I made yours."—"By my latchet, quoth John Drakes, "I will never wear a gentleman's faſhion again."

Minſtrels and Players.

MINSTRELS and players were formerly retainers in the houſes of the nobility: they wore the livery and badges of the maſter to whom they belonged; and, under that ſanction, travelling from place to place, exhibited their performances for hire. In the reign of Queen Mary, a remonſtrance from the privy council was preſented to the Lord Preſident of the north, ſtating, "that certain lewd," that is, diſſolute or ignorant, "perſons, to the number of ſix or ſeven in a company, naming themſelves to be the ſervants of Sir Francis Lake, and wearing his livery, or badge, upon their ſleeves, have wandered about theſe north parts, repreſenting certain plays and interludes, reflecting on her Majeſty and King Philip, and the formalities of the maſs."—Theſe according to Warton, were "family minſtrels, or players, who were conſtantly diſtinguiſhed by their maſter's livery or badge."—In conſequence of the above remonſtrance, Sir Francis Lake was enjoined to correct his ſervants ſo offending.

"In former times," ſays an author who wrote in the reign of Queen Eliſabeth, "a nobleman's houſe was a common wealthe in itſelfe; but ſince the retaining of theſe caterpillers," meaning the vagrant players, "the credite of noblemen hath decaied, and they are thought to be covetous, by permitting their ſervants, which cannot live of themſelves, and whome, for neerneſs, they will not maintain, to live at the devotion or almes of other men, paſſing from countrie to countrie, from one gentleman's houſe to another, offering their ſervice; which is a kind of beggarie; who, indeede, to ſpeake more trulie, are become beggers for their ſervants; for commonlie the good will men beare to their lordes makes them drawe the ſtringes of their purſes to extend their liberalities to them, where otherwiſe they would not."

Under the appellation of minſtrels, no doubt, was included all ſuch perſons as ſtudied muſic profeſſionally, and performed for pay. It ſeems certain, that ſome peculiar kind of dreſs was generally adopted by theſe melodious itinerants; and, from ſeeing them frequently depicted in habits altogether different from thoſe in common uſage, I am led to conclude that, in addition to their muſical talents, they often exhibited certain tricks of buffoonery, to which the quaintneſs of their dreſs was accommodated; we may then conſider them as a kind of mimics; and probably

they

they were the primitive introducers of the ſtrange diſguiſements that make up the medley of a modern maſquerade; and, by ſuch a double exhibition the exertions of a ſingle minſtrel might afford no ſmall degree of merriment to minds unprepared for any ſuperior ſpecies of entertainment. We frequently find them in company with other droils, whoſe performances conſiſted of dancing, of tumbling, or of balancing, to the muſic. It appears, indeed, that dancing and tumbling, in former times, differed but little, if at all, from each other; at leaſt, they ſeem to be often confounded: a remarkable inſtance occurs to my memory.—In a ſplendid manuſcript, written and illuminated at the commencement of the thirteenth century, which contains a ſhort Bible hiſtory, embelliſhed with many curious paintings, there is one picture repreſenting the daughter of Herodias in the preſence of Herod; but, inſtead of *dancing*, according to our acceptation of the word, ſhe is literally *tumbling*, or making a ſomerſault, with her hands upon the ground.

INQUIRIES RELATIVE TO THOMSON.

Communicated by the Earl of Buchan.

Collected from Mr William Taylor, formerly a Barber and Peruke-maker, at Richmond, Surrey—now blind. Sept. 1791.

Q. Mr Taylor, do you remember any thing of Thomſon, who lived in Kew-lane ſome years ago?——Thomſon.

Q. Thomſon, the poet?—Aye, very well. I have taken him by the noſe many hundred times. I ſhaved him, I believe, ſeven or eight years, or more; he had a face as long as a horſe; and he ſweat ſo much, that I remember, after walking one day in ſummer, I ſhaved his head without lather by his own deſire. His hair was as ſoft as a camel's—I hardly ever felt ſuch; and yet it grew ſo remarkably, that if it was but an inch long, it ſtood upright an end from his head like a bruſh.—[Mr Robertſon confirmed this remark.]

Q. His perſon, I am told, was large and clumſy?—Yes; he was pretty corpulent, and ſtooped forward rather when he walked, as though he was full of thought; he was very careleſs and negligent about his dreſs, and wore his clothes remarkably plain. [Mr Robertſon, when I read this to him, ſaid, "He was clean and yet ſlovenly, he ſtooped a good deal."]

Q. Did he always wear a wig?—Always in my memory, and very extravagant he was with them. I have ſeen a dozen at a time hanging up in my maſter's ſhop, and all of them ſo big that nobody elſe could wear them. I ſuppoſe his ſweating to ſuch a degree made him have ſo many, for I have known him ſpoil a new one only in walking from London.

Q. He was a great walker, I believe?—Yes; he uſed to walk from Malloch's at Strand on the Green near Kew Bridge, and from London, at all hours in the night; he ſeldom liked to go in a carriage, and I never ſaw him on horſeback. I believe he was too fearful to ride.—[Mr Robertſon ſaid, he could not bear to get upon a horſe.]

Q. Had he a Scotch accent?—Very broad—he always called me *Will.*

Q. Did you know any of his relations?—Yes; he had two nephews [couſins] Andrew and Gilbert Thomſon, both gardeners, who were much with him. Andrew uſed to work in his garden and keep it in order at over hours; he died at Richmond, about eleven years ago, of a cancer in his face. Gilbert, his brother, lived at Eaſt Sheen with one Squire Taylor, till he fell out of a mulberry tree and was killed.

Q. Did Thomſon keep much company

pany?—Yes; a good deal of the *writing ſort*. I remember Pope, and Paterſon, and Malloch, and Lyttelton, and Dr Armſtrong, and Andrew Millar the bookſeller, who had a houſe near Thomſon's in Kew lane. Mr Robertſon could tell you more about them.

Q. Did Pope often viſit him?—Very often; he uſed to wear a light-coloured great coat, and commonly kept it on in the houſe; he was a ſtrange ill formed little figure of a man; but I have heard him and Quin, and Paterſon, talk together ſo at Thomſon's, that I could have liſtened to them for ever.

Q. Quin was frequently there, I ſuppoſe?—Yes; Mrs Hobart, his houſe keeper, often wiſhed Quin dead, he made her maſter drink ſo. I have ſeen him and Quin coming from the Caſtle together at four o'clock in a morning, and not over ſober you may be ſure. When he was writing in his own houſe, he frequently ſat with a bowl of punch before him, and that a good large one too.

Q. Did he ſit much in his garden?—Yes; he had an arbour at the end of it, where he uſed to write in ſummer time, I have known him lie along by himſelf upon the graſs near it, and talk away as though three or four people were along with him.—[This might probably be when he was reciting his own compoſitions.]

Q. Did you ever ſee any of his writing?—I was once tempted, I remember, to take a peep; his papers uſed to be in a looſe pile upon the table in his ſtudy, and I had longed for a look at them a good while: ſo one morning while I was waiting in the room to ſhave him, and he was longer than uſual before he came down, I ſlipped off the top ſheet of paper and expected to find ſomething very curious, but I could make nothing of it. I could not even read it, for the letters looked like all in one.

Q. He was very affable in his manner?—O yes! he had no pride; he was very free in his converſation and very cheerful, and one of the beſt natured men that ever lived.

Q. He ſeldom was much burthened with caſh?—No; to be ſure he was deuced long-winded; but when he had money, he would ſend for his creditors and pay them all round; he has paid my maſter between 20l. and 30l. at a time.

Q. You did not keep a ſhop yourſelf then at that time?—No, Sir; I lived with one Lander here for 20 years, and it was while I was prentice and journeyman with him that I uſed to wait on Mr Thomſon. Lander made his majors and bobs, and a perſon of the name of Taylor in Craven-ſtreet in the Strand made his tie-wigs. An excellent cuſtomer he was to both.

Q. Did you dreſs any of his viſitors?—Yes; Quin and Littleton, Sir *George* I think he was called.—*He* was ſo tender-faced I remember, and ſo deviliſh difficult to ſhave, that none of the men in the ſhop dared to venture on him except myſelf. I have often taken Quin by the noſe too, which required ſome courage let me tell you. One day he aſked particularly if the razor was in good order, proteſted he had as many barbers' cats in his parlour at home, as any boy had of bird's eggs on a ſtring, and ſwore, if I did not ſhave him ſmoothly, he would add mine to the number. "Ah," ſaid Thomſon, "Wull ſhaves very well, I aſſure you."

Q. You have ſeen the Seaſons, I ſuppoſe?—Yes, Sir; and once had a great deal of them by heart (he here quoted a paſſage from ſpring). Shepherd, who formerly kept the Caſtle Inn, ſhewed me a book of Thomſon's writing, which was about the rebellion in 1745, and ſet to muſic, but I think he told me not publiſhed. [I mentioned this to Mr Robertſon, but he thought Taylor had made a ſmall

miſtake;

miſtake; perhaps it might be ſome of the patriotic ſongs in the maſque of Alfred.]

Q. The cauſe of his death is ſaid to have been taking a boat from Kew to Richmond, when he was much heated by walking?—No; I believe he got the better of that; but having had a batch of drinking with Quin, he took a quantity of cremor tartar, as he frequently did on ſuch occaſions, which with a fever before carried him off. [Mr Robertſon did not aſſent to this.]

Q. He lived I think in Kew Foot-Lane?—Yes; and died there; at the furtheſt houſe next Richmond Gardens, now Mr Boſcawen's. He lived ſometime before at a ſmaller one higher up, inhabited by Mrs Davis.

Q. Did you attend on him to the laſt?—Sir, I ſhaved him the very day before his death; he was very weak, but made a ſhift to ſit up in bed. I aſked him how he found himſelf that morning,—"Ah, Wull," he replied, "I am very bad indeed." [Mr Robertſon told me, he ordered this operation himſelf as a refreſhment to his friend.]

Taylor concluded by giving a hearty encomium on his character.

This converſation took place at one of the alcoves on Richmond Green, where I accidentally dropped in. I afterwards found it was a rural rendezvous for a ſet of old invalids on nature's infirm liſt; who met there every afternoon in fine weather, to recount and comment on the "tale of other times."

I enquired after Lander, and Mrs Hobart, and Taylor of Craven-ſtreet, but found that none of them were ſurviving. Mrs Hobart was thought to have a daughter married in the town called Egerton; but it was not likely from the diſtance of time, that ſhe could impart any thing new.

Taylor told me the late Dr Dodd had applied to him ſeveral years ago for anecdotes and information relative to Thomſon.

Park Egerton, the bookſeller, near Whitehall, tells me, that when *Thomſon* firſt came to London, he took up his abode with his predeceſſor Millan, and finiſhed his poem of Winter in the apartment over the ſhop; that Millan printed it for him, and it remained on his ſhelves a long time unnoticed; but after Thomſon began to gain ſome reputation as a poet, he either went himſelf, or was taken by Mallet, to Miller in the Strand, with whom he entered into new engagements for printing his works, which ſo much incenſed Millan his firſt patron, and his countryman alſo, that they never afterwards were cordially reconciled, although Lord Lyttleton took uncommon pains to mediate between them.

The two following EPITAPHS are ſaid to have been written by Mr JAMES THOMSON, Author of the Seaſons.

On Solomon Mendes, Eſq.

Here lies a man who never liv'd,
Yet ſtill from death was flying;
Who, if not ſick, was never well,
And dy'd—for fear of dying!

On Mr Jacob Mendes.

Here Jacob lies, grave, juſt, and ſage,
The chaſteſt perſon of the age:—
Who, had he been in Joſeph's place,
Had dy'd, not run away—alas!

ORI-

ORIGINAL LETTERS.

THE following Letter from Lord Hardwicke now makes its firſt appearance before the public. It is copied from the original in his hand-writing, and was addreſſed to James Marquis of Annandale, who ſucceeded his father in 1724, and died unmarried at Naples in 1745.

My Lord, *6th April* 1736.

TO ſee a young Nobleman inquiring after the propereſt methods for his own education, cannot but give one a moſt ſenſible pleaſure, in an age when the far greater part leave that care entirely to others; or, perhaps, do their utmoſt to obſtruct the fruits of it themſelves: on the contrary, ſuch an inquiry ſhews a laudable ſolicitude to aſſiſt the endeavours of parents, and to improve upon the inſtruction of tutors; of which I doubt not but your Lordſhip is ſupplied with the beſt. This would make it the higheſt impertinence in me to ſay one word to you on this topic, if your commands did not arm me with a juſtification.

The important buſineſs of your education ſeems chiefly to conſiſt in three things—your ſtudies, your exerciſes, and your travels. In your ſtudies, your firſt employment will of courſe be the learning of languages, ancient and modern. Without a competent ſkill in the former, you will want the inexpreſſible pleaſure and advantage that can only be drawn from thoſe immortal patterns of nervous beautiful writing, and virtuous action, which Greece and Rome have left us; and without the latter, a man of quality muſt find himſelf frequently at a loſs becomingly to act many parts, both in public and private life, to which his birth and rank do naturally call him. As you proceed farther, permit me to recommend Mathematics to your particular favour; it is of infinite ſervice in a variety of affairs, but there is one general uſe of it, which I remember my Lord Bacon ſomewhere mentions—that it tends above all things to fix the attention of youth; for in demonſtration, if a man's mind wander never ſo little, he muſt begin again.

The ſtudy of the Roman Civil Law is what every true friend of your Lordſhip would moſt earneſtly wiſh you to purſue—as the groundwork of the law of moſt countries, and in caſes where their municipal laws have made no ſpecial proviſion, it is their rule of judging: believe me, the benefits you will derive from a ſuperior knowledge of this ſcience are not to be deſcribed within the compaſs of a letter; and as your Lordſhip may poſſibly one day have a ſeat in Parliament, your country will by this means find you the much better qualified for their ſervice, as well as your own. I ſhall be in danger of going farther out of my depth, if I attempt to ſay much of your exerciſes. They require judgment in chooſing, and many of them are highly conducive to ſtrengthening the conſtitution, and forming a graceful behaviour: it ſeems to be a fault of the preſent age, to neglect the manly and warlike exerciſes, and to prefer thoſe which are ſoft and effeminate; the former are certainly a neceſſary part of the education of a man of quality, not to be laid aſide as ſoon as learned, but to be made a habit for life. Hence you will be rendered more apt for military fatigue and diſcipline, if ever the cauſe of your Prince and Country ſhall require you to endure it. And one cannot help obſerving, that it would be much for the honour of the Nobility, as well as the ſecurity of this kingdom, if more, even of thoſe who do not think fit to make War their trade, would however qualify themſelves to perform that honourable ſervice.

To theſe I preſume travelling will ſucceed, not only from the reaſon of

the thing, but the fashion of the times, and it were much to be wished that being in the fashion was not for the most part the sole aim of it. It is undoubtedly in itself a noble part of instruction, as it affords an opportunity of becoming acquainted with the Constitutions and Interests of Foreign Countries, the Courts of their Princes, the genius, trade, and general pursuits of the people. But as things are now managed, what is often substituted in the room of these most useful inquiries?—Nothing but the infection of their vices and luxury, their arts of dressing themselves and their victuals, and the acquisition of false vitiated taste in both. To instance one or two of the many causes of this unhappy abuse, may serve just to point out the way to avoid it:—One fundamental error is travelling too early; the mind of a young man wants to be fitted and prepared for this kind of cultivation; and, until it is properly opened by study and learning, he will want light to see and observe, as well as knowledge to apply, the facts and occurrences met with in foreign countries: without this foundation, a boy may be carried to see one of these idle shews called moving pictures, or the French Court in wax-work, with almost as great advantage, and with much more innocence.

Another fatal error is excessive expence, to which this part of what is called education is suffered to be carried. It is not uncommon to see a young Gentleman spend more by the year in such a tour, than the income of his estate will in prudence afford him the years of doing, when settled with a family at home! And to what purpose? Not to enable him to learn the more; for it turns him out of the paths of application and attention into those of pleasure and riot: not to enable him to associate with the best company of foreigners, but the most luxurious and extravagant of his own countrymen, or with such strangers as will resort to him only for his money. If the great number of travellers be considered, the drain of cash hereby occasioned is an apparent detriment to this kingdom, and the mischief to particular families is irretrievable, by acquiring a habit of expence which their estate cannot possibly bear, and which will ever be followed by a certain train of consequences, dangerous to the public as well as private welfare. In former times the people of Britain, who travelled, were observed to return home with their affections the more strongly engaged towards the well-tempered Constitution and liberty of their own country, from having observed the miseries resulting from arbitrary Governments abroad.—This was a happy effect, and most desirable to be continued: but by an unlucky reverse it sometimes happens in these days, that being taught to like the fashions and manners of foreign countries, they are led to have no aversion to their political institutions, and their methods of exercising civil power.

The Protestant religion being established here is one great security of our civil liberty. That ocular demonstration of the gross superstitions and absurdities of religion abroad, which travelling furnishes, was formerly thought to fix the mind in a more firm attachment to our primitive simplicity and abhorrence of the latter. It were much to be wished that this observation would constantly hold; but I fear the case is now sometimes otherwise, with this further ill consequence, that many of our young men, by a long interruption of the exercise of their own religion, become absolutely indifferent to all.

In what I have said, I desire to be understood not to advise your Lordship against travelling; my view is the otherwise:—it is only to lay before you what appeared to me, informed as I am, to be the modern abuses

abuſes of it; that, by avoiding thoſe, you may be in a condition to make uſe of that which is truly uſeful in itſelf.

Forgive me, my dear Lord, this tedious letter, drawn from me by your own requeſt, and proceeding from the ſincereſt deſire of your laſting proſperity. Be aſſured that I ſhould think it a very happy circumſtance in my life, if any advice of mine could be in the leaſt degree aſſiſtant towards rendering a young Nobleman of your quality and hopes the more capable of performing that ſervice to his King, his country, and his family, which they may juſtly expect from him; and that I am, with the utmoſt truth, Your Lordſhip's moſt faithful and obedient humble ſervant,

HARDWICKE.

LETTER from Lord Hailes to Lord Buchan, relative to his Life of Fletcher of Salton.

Newhailes, April the 26, 1787.

MY LORD,

YOUR Lordſhip, I obſerve, means to oblige the world with the Life of Fletcher of Salton. It may well be ſuppoſed that, conſidering the people from whom I come, he is no Saint in my Calendar—what I wiſh to know, was he a Whig at bottom? I have moral evidence which convinces me that another of that party, Lord Belhaven, had a private meeting with the Duke of Queenſberry in the gallery of the Abbey. *Ville qui parle*, your Lordſhip knows the reſt of the French proverb. The Duke of Hamilton went ſecretely aboard of the ſhip of Van Aerſen, Admiral Sommelſdyke, in the road of Leith, and propoſed an union with Holland. You may well judge *who* was to have had an office like *that* of a Scotiſh Stadtholder. The Admiral related this anecdote to Lord Auchinleck, his grand nephew, from whom I had it.

At preſent I can remember a few anecdotes of Salton.

A footman of his deſired to be diſmiſſed. "Why do you leave me?" ſaid he—"becauſe, to ſay the truth, I cannot bear your temper—To be ſure I am paſſionate, but my paſſion is no ſooner on, that it is off—Yes, replied the footman, but then, it is no ſooner off, than it is on."

I knew him well, ſaid Fletcher to Dr Pitcairn, he was hereditary Profeſſor of Divinity at Hamburg—*Hereditary Profeſſor of Divinity*, exclaimed the Doctor, what nonſenſe!—Doctor, what think you of an hereditary King?

If I miſtake not I have ſomewhere recorded that Fletcher ſaid Toland is a bigotted atheiſt.

It was ſaid of Fletcher that he wiſhed for a republic, in which he himſelf might be King.

I can make a pair of ſhoes for your feet, ſaid Mitchel the famous ſhoe maker, but I defy all the ſhoe makers in Scotland to make a pair for your head.

Like the elder Cato, and the elder Scaliger, he went late to the ſtudy of Greek.

He had acquired ſuch knowledge of Italian as to be able to compoſe a treatiſe in that language. Prince Eugene ſpoke to him in Italian, but Fletcher was not able to anſwer—*yes* or *no*.

I ever am, &c.

ON THE ADVANTAGE OF SOCIETY.

Self-love and ſocial at her birth began,
Union the bond of all things, and of man. POPE.

IF we reflect on the nature of the human ſpecies, we ſhall be convinced that all mankind were originally deſigned by the great Creator for ſocial

creatures. For can we imagine that man, above all other animals, is born the moſt indigent, helpleſs and abject? Our mutual dependance on each other is, therefore, one of the firſt things we ſhould know, and be convinced of; and conſequently, we ought to aſſiſt and relieve one another, and promote the happineſs of every individual, as far as is conſiſtent with truth, and the dictates of right reaſon. Can we ſuppoſe, that the Supreme Being beſtowed upon us the wonderful faculty of expreſſing and communicating to others our ideas by ſounds, for no purpoſe? Is it reaſonable to think that man ought to live in ſolitude, and expect happineſs only from himſelf? In other parts of the creation, the wiſdom of Providence has done nothing in vain. The uſe of words was not given us to converſe with brutes, for they neither underſtand nor return them. It is therefore evident, they were deſigned for the mutual intercourſe of the human ſpecies; beſides, the ſame paſſions are common to all men; love and hatred, hope and fear, pleaſure and pain, are the ſame in every individual, who acts conformable to his nature. This likeneſs in our deſires muſt neceſſarily attract us, and create in us ſuch an eſteem for each other, that nothing but unnatural diſpoſitions, or the greateſt corruption can diſſolve. Let us ſuppoſe a man baniſhed into the remoteſt wilderneſs, without the commerce, the company, or the friendſhip of his fellow-beings; how diſmal muſt his condition be! He may, perhaps find means to continue his exiſtence by taking ſuch animals as the deſert affords, and by gathering ſuch fruits and vegetables as the earth ſpontaneouſly yields; but his life muſt be a continual ſcene of horror and deſpair; no friend to converſe with; no mortal to defend him from the ravenous jaws of the ſavage inhabitants of the foreſt; no phyſician to adminiſter the ſalutary productions of nature, when pain and ſickneſs make their approach. In ſhort, he would be ſo far from arriving at happineſs, that he would ſcarce deſire to ſupport his exiſtence, and even court the king of terrors to terminate, at once, his ſorrows with his life.

Since choice, as well as neceſſity, and conveniency, ſhould induce all men to unite and form ſocieties, it is the indiſpenſable duty of every individual to become a uſeful member, and contribute all in his power to promote the happineſs of the whole. In order to this, before we embark in any action, we ſhould reflect on the conſequence which muſt naturally flow from it, by imagining it to have been already done by another; and we ſhall immediately be able to judge of the modes of pleaſure or pain it will give others, from the manner of its affecting ourſelves. To a reaſonable being nothing brings pain but vice, or pleaſure but virtue. This precaution muſt tend to promote benevolence, friendſhip, and honeſty among mankind; whereas the not obſerving it, ſubjects us to the tyranny of our paſſions, to gratify which, men frequently become faithleſs, cruel, diſhoneſt, and traiterous. We are convinced that men muſt live in ſocieties, and, in order to live happy, it is evident they muſt be virtuous, ſince nothing elſe in our power can mutually ſecure us.

From what has been ſaid, it evidently appears, ſocieties are not only the ſource of happineſs, but abſolutely neceſſary; and that they cannot ſubſiſt without ſome law. Nor ſhould man, notwithſtanding the demands of his paſſions, think himſelf enſlaved for living under the dominion of reaſon, ſince the great Creator himſelf regulates his conduct by a law, which, from the unchangeableneſs of his nature, has ſubſiſted from, and will continue, to all eternity. Why then ſhould not we ſtrictly conform ourſelves to the principles of reaſon? If

pleaſure

pleaſure be deſirable, as moſt ſurely it is, we can only hope to obtain it by following her dictates. Thoſe pleaſures we enjoy contrary to her precepts, always leave a ſting behind them, infinitely ſuperior to the joys we find in their poſſeſſion. We ſhould, therefore always let reaſon direct our actions, and remember the golden rule of doing to others what we ourſelves, in their circumſtances, ſhould deſire from another. This is alone ſufficient to conduct a man innocently and ſafely through the journey of life, till death draws the ſable veil which ſeparates this from the world of ſpirits.

K.

ON THE HUMOUR OF ADDISON, AND THE CHARACTER OF SIR ROGER DE COVERLEY *.

SIR,

I HAVE often been ſurpriſed at the opinion ſo deciſively maintained by many Engliſh writers, that *humour* is a quality in a manner peculiar to this iſland. If its proper definition be the diſplay of the ridiculous in characters; or if it be underſtood, more comprehenſively, for ludicrous painting in general; it muſt have exiſted wherever comedy, or any other mode of delineating the riſible follies and peculiarities of mankind, has been ſucceſsfully attempted. The *name* is of no conſequence; the *thing* is a part of human nature itſelf. We are told by late voyagers, that the rude natives of ſome of the South-Sea iſlands exhibit remarkable talents at humourous mimickery, and *take off*, with ſingular drollery, the characteriſtics of the European ſailor, as well as the defects of their own countrymen. The Kamtſhadale is extremely happy in caricaturing the manners and actions of the bear, an animal ſo nearly on his own level, that it is no degradation of the human creature to make this beaſt the ſubject of his jocularity. But to recur to civilized life, is it poſſible to read Don Quixotte, or the comedies of Moliere, without feeling that their eſſence is the moſt exquiſite humour ever exhibited?

But although humour, as a general quality, is ſo widely diffuſed, it exiſts under many particular ſpecies and modifications, and wears a very different face in different authors. Among Engliſh writers no one has more deſervedly obtained reputation for his humorous delineations than Addiſon, whoſe manner in theſe performances is thought peculiar to himſelf. To inquire into the nature of this peculiarity, may afford ſome amuſive and not unuſeful ſpeculation.

Dr Johnſon has, I think, taken too confined a view of the range of Addiſon's humour in thus deſcribing it. "His humour is ſo happily diffuſed as to give the grace of novelty to domeſtic ſcenes and daily occurrences. He never outſteps the modeſty of nature, nor raiſes merriment or wonder by the violation of truth. His figures neither divert by diſtortion, nor amuſe by aggravation. He copies life with ſo much fidelity, that he can hardly be ſaid to invent; yet his exhibitions have an air ſo much original, that it is difficult to ſuppoſe them not merely the product of the imagination." In this account there is truth, but not all the truth. It may apply to "the domeſtic ſcenes and daily occurrences" repreſented by this author; but much of his humour is alſo employed upon ſubjects of fancy and invention, in which the ludicrous is ſtudiouſly ſought after; and in not a few inſtances he manifeſtly draws with the pencil of a caricaturiſt, and effects his purpoſe by a happy exaggeration.

It has frequently been his practice to ſeize ſome ſtory or hiſtorical narration, and, adopting only the leading circum-

* For obſervations on the ſtyle of Addiſon, ſee our laſt Number p. 29.

circumſtance, to found on it a fiction of his own, of an entirely ludicrous nature; and in this ſpecies of humour he is, I think, peculiarly original. Of this kind may be mentioned his improvement of Sir John Mandeville's ſtory of the freezing of words in the frigid zone; and his account of the Taliacotian manufactory of noſes; both in the *Tatler*: his regiſter of the lover's leap; deſcription of Tarcy's academy for politicians; dream of women carrying out their valuables from a beſieged town; and trial of chaſtity by a breed of dogs; all in the *Spectator*. Theſe admirable pieces of humour cannot juſtly be ſaid to pleaſe by their adherence to nature and truth; on the contrary, they owe their merit to a kind of agreeable extravagance, and to a creation of ludicrous imagery, artificially engrafted upon the ſubject. Many others of his pictures are fancy pieces of the caricature and groteſque kind. Such are, the virtuoſo's will; and moſt of the proceedings of the court of honour, in the *Tatler*: the citizen's and the lady's journal; and the widows' club, in the *Spectator*: the rebel officer's journal in the *Freeholder*; and the ſcenes among the ſervants, in the play of *The Drummer*. In others, he has receded ſtill further from topics of real life, and has ſported in ſcenes of pure invention. Examples of this are given in the tranſmigrations of a monkey, the diſſections of a beau's head and a coquette's heart, the mountain of miſeries, and that delightful tale, the antediluvian loves of Shalum and Chilpa. Thus it would ſeem that Addiſon rejected no promiſing ſource of the ludicrous, whether ſuggeſted by reading, obſervation, or fancy. It may, however, be admitted, that his humour is moſt valuably employed where, beſides the purpoſe of exciting a ſmile, his intent has been to ſatirize ſome prevalent folly or violation of the proprieties of life. This has very frequently been his object, and no writer ever more happily combined good-natured pleaſantry with effectual ridicule. The ſly ſimplicity of his ſtrokes inflicted with a ſeeming unconſciouſneſs of intention, while it renders them more exquiſite to attentive and ſagacious readers, has perhaps often occaſioned them to paſs unnoticed; ſo that I believe Addiſon generally is regarded as leſs of a ſatiriſt than he really is. That he could employ keen ridicule upon occaſion, ſufficiently appears from his profeſſed party-writings; and although in the Spectator he has the merit of excluding all direct topics of party, yet I think it may eaſily be diſcerned that he had by no means loſt ſight of a general purpoſe of favouring that public cauſe to which he was devoted. In particular, the perſonage of Sir Roger de Coverley, appears to be employed by him as a covert for throwing ridicule upon that claſs of ſociety which he has more openly ſatirized in his country gentleman in the Freeholder. I do not mean that he has uſed it ſolely for this purpoſe, for he has alſo made it the vehicle of much pleaſing morality; but he has kept this end in conſtant view.

An acute judge of moral propriety obſerved to me ſome time ago, that the character of Sir Roger, as exhibited in different parts of the Spectator, was by no means conſiſtent. In the ſecond number, written probably by Steel, he is deſcribed as a man of ſingularities, but proceeding from a particular vein of good ſenſe; and though fond of retirement, and careleſs of appearances, ſince he was croſſed in love; it is ſaid that in his youth he had been a fine gentleman, who ſupped with Lord Rocheſter and Sir George Etheridge, had fought a duel, and kicked a bully in a coffee-houſe. It is certain that many of the ſubſequent diſplays of his character, in which he is repreſented as ignorant of the common forms of life, ruſtic, uninformed, and credulous, very ill accord with this ſuppoſed

ſuppoſed town education. Steel himſelf has been guilty of ſome of theſe deviations from the original draught; but Addiſon ſeems not at all to have regarded it, and to have painted after a conception of his own, to which he has faithfully adhered. *His* Sir Roger, though ſomewhat of an humouriſt in his manner, is eſſentially a benevolent, cheerful, hearty country gentleman, of very ſlender abilities and confined education, warmly attached to church and king, and imbued with all the political opinions of what was called the country party. Though he is made an object of affection from the goodneſs of his heart, and the hilarity of his temper, yet his weakneſſes and prejudices ſcarcely allow place for eſteem; nor do we meet with any of that whimſical complication of ſenſe and folly which Steel's papers exhibit, and which he accounts for on the ſuppoſition of a ſort of mental infirmity, left by his amorous diſappointment.

I ſhall point out ſome of the particulars which ſeem deſigned by Addiſon to lower him down to the ſtandard of capacity which he choſe to allot to the abſtract character of the country gentleman. His behaviour at church may paſs as the oddity of an humouriſt, though it alſo plainly denotes the ruſtication of a ſequeſtered life: but his half belief of witchcraft in the caſe of Moll White, is undoubtedly a ſatirical ſtroke on country ſuperſtition. Sir Roger ſeriouſly adviſes the old woman not to have communication with the devil, or hurt her neighbours' cattle; and it is obſerved, "that he would frequently have bound her over to the country ſeſſions, had not his chaplain, with much ado, perſuaded him to the contrary." At the aſſizes he gets up and makes a ſpeech; but, the Spectator ſays, "it was ſo little to the purpoſe, that he will not trouble his readers with an account of it." In the adventure with the gypſies, the knight ſuffers them to tell him his fortune, and appears more than half inclined to put faith in their predictions. His notion that the act for ſecuring the church of England had already begun to take effect, becauſe a rigid diſſenter, who had dined at his houſe on Chriſtmas day, had been obſerved to eat heartily of plumb-porridge, is too palpable a ſtroke of raillery on the narrow conceptions of the high party, to be miſtaken. The whole deſcription of Sir Roger's behaviour at the repreſentation of the Diſtreſſed Mother, is admirably humourous; but the figure the knight makes in it is not at all more reſpectable in point of taſte or knowledge, than that of Partridge in Tom Jones on a ſimilar occaſion. But it is in the viſit to the tombs in Weſtminſter Abbey, that Addiſon has moſt unmercifully jeſted on the good man's ſimplicity. Sir Roger, it ſeems, was prepared for this ſpectacle by a courſe of hiſtorical reading in the ſummer, which was to enable him to bring quotations from Baker's Chronicle in his political debates with Sir Andrew Freeport. He accordingly deals out his knowledge very liberally as he paſſes through the heroes of this profound hiſtorian. The ſhew-man, however, informs him of many circumſtances which he had not met with in Baker; and this profuſion of anecdotes, makes him appear ſo extraordinary a perſon to Sir Roger, that he not only kindly ſhakes him by the hand at parting, but invites him to his lodgings in Norfolk-ſtreet, in order "to talk over theſe matters with him more at leiſure." The trait is pleaſantly ludicrous, but ſomewhat *outre*, as applied to a perſon at all removed from the loweſt vulgar.

If the picture of Sir Roger be compared with that of the country ſquire in the Freeholder, it will be found that they differ chiefly in the milder temper and more benevolent diſpoſition of the knight, and ſcarcely at all in point of information and underſtanding. Both have the ſame national and party prejudices, and exhibit

bit an equal inferiority to the more cultured inhabitant of the town. As the papers in which Sir Roger appears have ever been among the most popular in the Spectator, I cannot but think they have done much in fixing on the public mind the abstract idea of a country gentleman, and attaching to it that sort of contempt with which, whether justly or otherwise, it has usually been treated; and I should no more hesitate to term Addison a *satirist* in this piece of pleasantry, than the author of the celebrated "Lettres Provinciales," who has perhaps excelled every writer in the refined delicacy of his ridicule.

J. Aikin.

Jan. 6. 1800.

ILLUSTRATIONS OF THE PROGRESS OF DRESS IN ENGLAND FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES.

From Strutt's View of the Dress and Habits of the People of England.

The Horned Head-Dress of the Ladies in the Fifteenth Century.

ABOUT this time a preposterous kind of head-dress made its appearance among the fair sex, distinguished by the appellation of 'the horned head dress,' which is severely reprobated by John de Meun, in his poem called the Codicil: he speaks to this effect: 'If I dare say it, without making them,' that is the ladies, 'angry, I should dispraise their hosing, their vesture, their girding, their head-dresses, their hoods thrown back, with their *horns* elevated and brought forward, as if it were to wound us. I know not whether they call them *gallowses* or *brackets*, that prop up the horns, which they think are so handsome; but of this I am certain, that Saint Elizabeth obtained not paradise by the wearing of such trumpery.'—He then proceeds to deride the excessive width of these head-dresses, and speaks of the quantity of fine linen that was used to decorate them, with much disapprobation.

The knight, who has already furnished us so largely with selections *, calls in, upon this occasion, the authority of a 'holy bishop, who, declaiming from the pulpit against the fashionable foibles of the fair sex, accuses them of being marvellously arrayed in divers and quaint manners, and particularly with *high horns*. The prelate then gravely, with more zeal perchance than learning, attributes the cause of the deluge to the pride and disguising of the women, who, he tells us, were thereby led astray into the paths of vice: but, resuming the former subject, he compares the ladies of his day to horned snails, to harts, and to unicorns; declaring that, by such unnatural adjustments, they mocked God; and proceeds to relate a story of a gentlewoman, who came to a feast, having her head so strangely attired with long pins, that her head-dress resembled a gibbet; 'and so,' added he, 'she was scorned by all the company, who ridiculed her taste, and said, she carried a *gallowes* upon her head.' All the remonstrances from the pulpit, the admonitions from the moral writers, and the satirical reflections of the poets were not sufficiently powerful to conquer the prevalency of this fashion, or, at least, not very hastily; for the horned head-dress maintained its ground nearly two centuries. Lidgate, the monk of Bury, who lived in the reign of Henry VI. has written a long ballad upon this subject; and he therein endeavours to persuade the ladies to lay aside their horns, which, he insists upon, are no addition to their beauty; for beauty adds he, will show itself, though the horns be cast away.

* From a work in MS. compiled toward the conclusion of the fourteenth century, for the use of three young ladies, daughters of a knight in Normandy; in the Harleian Library at the British Museum, marked 1761.

away. He uſes alſo another argument, namely, the example of the Virgin Mary, who never ſubmitted to any ſuch diſguiſement.

At the commencement of the fifteenth century, this ſpecies of head-dreſs was extended to a prepoſterous ſize. We learn, that, when Iſabel of Bavaria, the vain and luxurious conſort of Charles VI. of France, kept her court at Vincennes, it was neceſſary to make all the doors in the palace higher and wider, to admit the head-dreſſes of the queen and her ladies. Indeed, it is by no means wonderful, that large coiffures ſhould have continued long in faſhion, eſpecially among the women of high rank, when it is conſidered, that they admitted of a proportionable variety of ornaments, and afforded an opportunity for the ladies of diſplaying their taſte to greater advantage than a ſmaller compaſs would admit of.

A foreign author † ſpeaks of the horned head-dreſs, as it was worn at Lyons, in the following manner: 'It conſiſted of a mixture of woollen cloth and ſilk, with two horns reſembling turrets, and was cut and pinked after the faſhion of a German hood, or criſped like the belly of a calf.' But, at the time of his writing, this attire ſeems to have been upon the decline; the more faſhionable one he thus deſcribes: 'The ladies ornamented their heads with certain rolls of linen, pointed like ſteeples, generally half, and ſometimes three quarters, of an ell in height.' Theſe were called by ſome, great butterflies, from having two long wings on each ſide reſembling thoſe of that inſect. The high cap was covered with a fine piece of lawn hanging down to the ground, the greater part of which was tucked under the arm. The ladies of a middle rank wore caps of cloth, conſiſting of ſeveral breadths or bands twiſted round the head, with two wings on the ſide like aſſes' ears; others, again, of a higher condition, wore caps of black velvet, half a yard high, which in theſe days would appear very ſtrange and unſeemly. 'It is no eaſy matter,' continues the author, 'to give a proper deſcription in writing of the different faſhions in the dreſſes of the ladies;' and he refers the readers to the ancient tapeſtry and painted glaſs, in which they may ſee them more perfectly repreſented: to theſe he might have added the illuminated manuſcripts, wherein they are frequently enough to be met with.

† Paradin, Hiſt. de Lyons, p. 271. Theſe faſhions were in uſe in the year 1761.

Cumberſome and extravagant Dreſſes of the Men, in the time of Henry IV.

Henry IV. ſoon after his acceſſion to the throne, revived the ſumptuary ſtatutes of Edward III.; but, if they had then been ſtrenuouſly carried into execution, Thomas Occliff, who wrote in the reign of that monarch, would not have had the occaſion of complaint which he exhibits againſt the extravagance of dreſs exiſtent in his time. This poet, after enumerating many things requiring amendment, comes to the ſubject of apparel; 'and this,' ſays he, 'in my thinking, is an evil, to ſee one walking in gowns of ſcarlet twelve yards wide, with ſleeves reaching to the ground, and lined with fur, worth twenty pounds, or more; at the ſame time, if he had only been maſter of what he paid for, he would not have had enough to have lined a hood.'—He, then proceeds to condemn the pride of the lower claſſes of the people, for imitating the faſhions and extravagancies of the rich; 'and certainly,' ſays he, 'the *great lords* are to blame, if I dare ſay ſo much, to permit their dependants to imitate them in their dreſs. In former time perſons of rank were known by their apparel; but, at preſent, it is very difficult to diſtinguiſh the nobleman from one of low degree.' He then conſiders the 'foule waſte of cloth' attendant

dant upon theſe luxurious faſhions, and aſſures us, that no leſs than a yard of broad cloth was expended for one man's tippet. Returning to his former argument, that noblemen ought not to encourage their ſervants in the uſage of ſuch extravagant dreſſes, he ſays, 'If the maſter ſhould ſtumble as he walks, how can his ſervant afford him any aſſiſtance, while both his hands have full employment in holding up the long ſleeves with which his arms are encumbered *?' He then adds, that 'the taylors muſt ſoon ſhape their garments in the open field, for want of room to cut them in their own houſes; becauſe that man is beſt reſpected who bears upon his back, at one time, the greateſt quantity of cloth and of fur.'

From the following obſervation the reader may, perchance, ſuſpect the reformiſt of loving his belly more than his back: 'In days of old,' ſays he, 'when men were clad in a more ſimple manner, there were abundance of good eating; but now they clothe themſelves in ſuch an expenſive manner, that the former hoſpitality is baniſhed from their houſes.' He then laments, 'that a nobleman cannot adopt a new guiſe, or faſhion, but that a knave will follow his example;' and, ſpeaking in commendation of John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaſter, he informs us, that 'his garments were too wide, and yet they became him wondrouſly well.' 'Now, would to God!' continues he, 'this waſte of cloth and pride were exiled from us for ever; for now we have little need of brooms in the land to ſweep away the filth from the ſtreet, becauſe the ſide ſleeves of pennyleſs grooms will gather it up, if it ſhould be either wet or dry.' He then addreſſes himſelf, by apoſtrophe, to his country, and adviſes a reformation of all theſe abuſes: his ſatirical concluſion, however, I hope is inapplicable to any time but his own. 'If,' ſays he, 'a man of abilities, meanly clad, ſhould ſeek acceſs to the preſence of a nobleman, he would be denied on account of his cloathing: but, on the contrary, a man who, by flattery and the meaneſt ſervility, can procure himſelf the moſt faſhionable apparel, he ſhall be received with great honour.'

Trunk Breeches or Sloops—the Vardingale.

THE remarkable innovation (at the beginning of the reign of Eliſabeth, was the trunk breeches, or ſloops) which were gradually ſwelled to an enormous ſize: theſe breeches, we are told, were ſtuffed out with rags, wool, tow, or hair, and ſometimes, indeed, with articles of a more cumbrous nature, if the ſtory related by Holingſhed be founded upon fact; wherein a man is ſaid to have exhibited the whole of his bed and table furniture, taken from thoſe extenſive receptacles. The ladies alſo, on their parts, extended their garments from the hips with foxes tails and *bum-rolls*, as they were called; finding that, by ſuch moderation, they could keep no pace with the vaſt protuberance of the trunk ſlops, they introduced the great and ſtately vardingales, or farthingales, which

* They are thus deſcribed by another author: '*Maxime togatorum cum profundis et lati, manicis, vocatis vulgariter* pokys, *ad modum* bagpipe *formatis*: wearing gowns with deep wide ſleeves, commonly called *pokys*, ſhaped like a *bagpipe*, and worn indifferently both by ſervants and maſters. They are alſo rightly denominated devils' receptacles, *receptacula domontorum recte dici*; for, whatever could be ſtolen, was popped into them. Some were ſo long and wide that they reached to the feet, others to the knees, and were full of ſlits. As the ſervants were bringing up pottage and ſauces, or any other liquors, thoſe ſleeves would go into them, and have the firſt taſte. And all that they could procure was ſpent to clothe their incurable carcaſes with theſe *pokys* or *ſleeves*, while the reſt of their habit was ſhort.'

which ſuperſeded all former inventions, and gave them the power of appearing as large as they pleaſed.

The vardingale afforded the ladies a great opportunity of diſplaying their jewels, and the other ornamental parts of their dreſs, to the utmoſt advantage, and, for that reaſon I preſume, obtained the ſuperiority over the cloſe habits and the more ſimple imitations of nature; and, what, indeed, was the court-dreſs very lately, but the vardingale differently modified, being compreſſed before and behind, and proportionably extended at the ſides? Bulwer gives us the following anecdote relative to this unnatural habit:—When Sir Peter Wych was ambaſſador to the Grand Seignor from King James I, his lady was with him at Conſtantinople; and the Sultaneſs, having heard much of her, deſired to ſee her: whereupon Lady Wych, accompanied with her waiting women, all of them neatly dreſſed in their great vardingales, which was the court-dreſs of the Engliſh ladies of that time, waited upon her highneſs. The ſultaneſs received her with great reſpect; but, wondering much at the extenſion of her hips, inquired if that ſhape was peculiar to the women of England: to which the lady replied, that the Engliſh women did not differ in ſhape from thoſe of other countries: and, by explaining to her the nature of the dreſs, convinced the ſultaneſs, that ſhe and her companions were not really ſo deformed as they appeared to be.

REMARKS ON BEAUTY OF COUNTENANCE.

From Neveu's Lectures.

MAN being ſovereignly endowed with intelligence, and being deſtined to unite in himſelf all the virtues, ought to preſent the impreſſion of them on his exterior form; to manifeſt them by features which ſhould diſtinguiſh him from all other animals. Accordingly, the form of his face is more beautiful, the more it is peculiarly his own, and leſs reſembles any other; it is the more diſguſting, the more ſenſibly it recalls that of any beaſt. Among the vaſt variety preſented by the countenance of animals, the human is diſtinguiſhed by its regularity. In front, it forms an exact oval, the parts of which are regularly divided, and preſerve a ſymmetrical relation to each other. It is in this front part that animals principally differ from each other, and from man; for the hinder part of the ſkull or occiput is nearly the ſame in all. If a line were paſſed through the roots of the teeth of the upper jaw, and the moſt projecting part of the frontal bones, which ſhould croſs another line, paſſing horizontally over the whole cheek, to reach from the root of the noſe to the lower extremity of the ear, or ſometimes even to its orifice, theſe two lines would form, by their union, an angle of from 80 to 90 degrees, and even more.

All other animals, beginning with the ape, depart more or leſs from this form; and their inſtinct appears narrower, in proportion as the union of theſe lines forms a ſharper angle; ſo that the obſerver may aſcertain, at ſight, the degree of inſtinct of an animal, by the diſpoſition of the bones of its head, nature appearing to have eſtabliſhed this viſible correſpondence between its exterior form, and the extent of its faculties. Thus, the fiſhes, which are the dulleſt of all animals, are alſo thoſe whoſe face offers a ſharper angle by the union of theſe two lines. The human head preſents in its front part, as we have juſt obſerved, the exact ſhape of an egg; that is to ſay, of an oval, wider above than below. In dividing this oval into two diameters, the largeſt, will part into two equal portions, the

forehead, the nose, the mouth, and the chin.

In faces all equally beautiful, it is only by almost imperceptible shades that their beauty varies, and causes itself to be remarked: the eye-brow more or less arched, the nose more or less rounded or prominent, the eyes more or less open, the oval more or less elongated; in short the slightest modification suffices to express all the shades of beauty, and to distinguish faces which, to be beautiful, must be regular, and formed on the whole, and in the details, according to the principles which we have laid down.

From the slight sketches that we have traced in the large plate, it may be seen, that ugliness augments in proportion as the face departs from the regular form. In another lecture we shall consider the manner in which the passions announce themselves; and we shall try to express the lively and delicate shades by which they manifest their differences with so much promptitude and precision. This important part of painting is that which demands most practice and ability in the artist; that which supposes the nicest observations, and gives the most advantageous opinion of the sensibility of his heart, and the delicacy of his mind.

It remains to examine, why faces irregular, and even whimsical in their form, please, however, more than others which are beautiful and well formed. Can ugliness, then, usurp the rights of beauty? Can this last sometimes be powerless? What, in this case, becomes of the principles which we have laid down, attributing to it rights so extended, ascribing to it effects so mighty? Our answer to this objection is naturally deduced from what we have before said of man, and even serves as a confirmation of it. If reason places its glory in triumphing over the charms of beauty, if the sage resists its empire, it is when he does not discover among them intelligence and virtue, that alliance which ought to unite them. Inferior to its companions, but more speedy in its effect, beauty alone may well enchant the eyes, and surprise the senses: but this enchantment is little lasting; habit destroys it, every day diminishes its power, and the mind, undeceived, soon breaks bonds too weak to restrain it. On the contrary, the qualities of the understanding and of the heart often supply the place of beauty, and shew their power so much the more, as they stand in its stead, and do without its assistance. What is obtained without beauty is obtained by a charm more powerful, the effect of which time encreases instead of destroying. It has even been observed by the experience of all ages, that the greatest passions have been inspired by women only moderately handsome, because they then please by qualities more estimable and less frail than beauty.

MEMORABILIA OF THE MONTH OF JANUARY.

SIR,

OUR forefathers were remarkable for a superstitious regard to certain months and days, which were deemed lucky or unlucky for the undertaking of any business. In our times we are become less attentive to these matters, although there are some among the lower classes, and in the more remote parts of the kingdom, who still adhere, with great obstinacy, to what they term lucky and unlucky days, or months, and I shall not at present endeavour to rob them of their theories. I shall, however, perhaps, in the course of my letters, shew that there is a singular coincidence between the opinions of the modern vulgar, and those of our most enlightened forefathers upon such subjects. But my present purpose is of another kind.

We have had many books publish-

ed,

ed, in which hiſtories (if they may be ſo called) have been given of the twelve months, but all theſe have principally regarded the appearances of nature in thoſe months, the phenomena of ſowing, planting, reaping, or, in a word, the natural hiſtory of ſuch months. My deſign is to give a ſlight ſketch, and it can only be a ſlight one, of the civil hiſtory of each month, or the public events and other *memorabilia* which have occurred in it. Some amuſement, at leaſt, if not much uſe, may ariſe from taking a chronological ſurvey of the months in this way, and it will ſerve to refreſh the memory, and bring together a ſet of ideas upon important ſubjects, which may aſſiſt and enliven converſation. By way of ſpecimen, which will better explain my plan, than any preface, I herewith ſend you the *memorabilia of January*, and ſhall continue the reſt in the uſual courſe.

ÆRARIUS.

AMONG the *public events* of January, may be reckoned the coronation of William the Conqueror, at Weſtminſter, the firſt of a potent race of kings, and the laſt who could ſay, that he had conquered this country. The coronation of Charles II. at Scone, in 1651, was a leſs fortunate event, the Scotch not being able to ſupport his claim to his father's crown againſt the Engliſh.—In this month Calais ſurrendered to the French, after it had been in the poſſeſſion of the Engliſh above 210 years. This was one of the fruits of the weak and bloody reign of Queen Mary.—In this month alſo Philip V. king of Spain, and Charles V. of Germany, reſigned their crowns, the one in 1724, the other in 1554. This practice of *reſigning* crowns has not of late been ſo common. But there are two memorable inſtances in this month, of ſovereigns dethroned and put to death by their rebellious ſubjects. Charles I. of England, and Louis XVI. of France. In this month alſo periſhed on a ſcaffold, Archbiſhop Laud, the too zealous counſellor of Charles I.

January is remarkable for the *birth* of ſome illuſtrious characters; of Cicero, the moſt celebrated of the Roman orators and philoſophers; of Lord Bacon, one of the greateſt geniuſes that any country has produced, but whoſe genius was obſcured by failings that ought to check the pride of human attainments, and which occaſioned that ſevere line of the poet,

"The greateſt, wiſeſt, *meaneſt* of mankind."

Adrian, the Roman Emperor, who, in his viſit to this country, built the famous wall which goes by his name, was born in this month.

But the proportion of illuſtrious *deaths* in January is far greater. Among theſe we may reckon Lewis XII. king of France, uſually called the father of his people; Ovid, the poet of lovers, and love-ſick claſſics; General Monk, afterward Duke of Albemarle. The ſhare he took in bringing in Charles II. is well known, and he ſucceeded, becauſe he watched the favourable opportunity, when the people were completely wearied of a ſucceſſion of pretended patriots and impoſtors. It may not be impertinent to add, that the public are at preſent looking for the coming of another Monk in a neighbouring nation, but of that there ſeems not a very near proſpect. What can we expect of a people, who have bowed the neck to a foreign adventurer, in preference to the hereditary line, and what is more ſingular, in preference to the republican government of which we have heard ſo much? Let us turn from this diſguſting and degrading ſcene.

In this month died Queen Catherine of Arragon, the divorced wife of Henry VIII, a man who, as a late author juſtly obſerves, "confounded every idea of government and religion; who burned martyrs of oppoſite ſects at the ſame ſtake, baſtardized his own children, and then

entailed

entailed his crown on them; and who ſeems to have provided for nothing but a ſucceſſion of civil wars, by the unwarrantable diſpoſition he made of his dominions."

Among theſe *memento moris*, we are alſo to reckon Sir Hans Sloane, whoſe vaſt collection became the foundation, and almoſt the ſuperſtructure of the Britiſh Muſeum; David Garrick, whoſe death, in the energetic language of his old friend, Dr Johnſon, "eclipſed the gaiety of nations, and impoveriſhed the public ſtock of harmleſs pleaſure." Howard, alſo, renowned among all nations for his philanthropy, died in this month. His death was announced in the London Gazette, an honour for which there is not, we believe, any precedent. A ſtatue has been ſince erected in St Paul's cathedral to his memory. Leſs ought not to have been done to honour a man who "viſited all Europe, not to ſurvey the ſumptuouſneſs of palaces, or the ſtateline's of temples; not to make accurate meaſurements of the remains of ancient grandeur, nor to form an epitome of modern art; but to dive into the depth of dungeons; to plunge into the infection of hoſpitals; to ſurvey the manſions of ſorrow and pain, &c. in a word, to compare and to collate, for the purpoſe of remedying the diſtreſſes of men in all countries."

In this month alſo, the world loſt Gibbon, the celebrated hiſtorian, and a better man, Dr George Horne, Biſhop of Norwich; Dr Garth, the witty author of the Diſpenſary, and William Congreve, the laſt of legitimate dramatic wits, for he has given the name ſince to every perſon who has appeared to tread in his ſteps. —Two monarchs of great renown, but who will be very differently eſtimated, paid the debt of nature in January, Henry VIII. of England, already mentioned, and Peter the Great, of Ruſſia. It was in the ſame month that Peter came to England, and learned the trade of ſhip-building. The death of the celebrated aſtronomer Galileo, happened alſo in January.

Among the leſſer *memorabilia* of the ſame period, may be mentioned, the arrival of Prince Eugene, in England; the capture of Onore, in the Eaſt-Indies, by the Engliſh; the ſuppreſſion, perhaps only for a time, of monaſtic eſtabliſhments in France; the eſcape of the Stadtholder and family from the Hague, driven thence by the invaſion of the French; and for a ſimilar reaſon, the landing of the King and Queen of Naples at Palermo, in Sicily.

To mention every event occurring in a particular month, would be tedious.—It will be my object to catch the more prominent.

G.

ON THE SUCCESS OF INOCULATION FOR THE COW POX.

By W. Woodville, Surgeon, Ely Place, London.

IN my reports of the new inoculation, publiſhed in May laſt, including upwards of 500 caſes, I obſerved that the matter of the vaccine diſeaſe generally produced much fewer puſtules, and leſs indiſpoſitions, than that of the ſmall pox. But at the ſame time it was remarked, that in ſome inſtances the cow-pox proved a very ſevere diſeaſe, and that one child died of ſpaſmodic fits, occaſioned by the eruptive fever which it excited. I hinted, however, that if the matter of the cow-pox uſed for the inoculations had been taken only from thoſe patients in whom the diſeaſe appeared very mild and well characteriſed, the reſult would have been more favourable; and I have ſince had the ſatisfaction to find this opinion fully confirmed. For of 1000 perſons inoculated for the vaccine diſeaſe, by me, or under my immediate direc-

on, during the laſt ſix months, not more than 150 had puſtules which proceeded to ſuppuration; nor was their one caſe attended with a dangerous ſymptom.

Now out of 1000 perſons inoculated for the ſmall-pox, I find generally that more than 800 have puſtules; and as the ſeverity of the diſeaſe is commonly in proportion to the number of the puſtules, it follows that the cow-pox is milder than the inoculated ſmall-pox in the proportion above mentioned.

To infants at the breaſt the new inoculation has proved peculiarly ſucceſsful, for I have now had a very conſiderable number of private patients of this deſcription, in none of whom was the inoculation attended with any puſtules, and ever very rarely with any perceptible diſorder of the conſtitution.

That thoſe who have undergone the vaccine diſeaſe are thereby rendered ſecure againſt the effects of the ſmall-pox, is a truth confirmed by daily experience. Upwards of 1000 of my patients, who had undergone the cow-pox, have been inoculated with variolous matter, yet none of them took the ſmall-pox.

Ely Place, Your's, &c.
Jan. 11, 1800. WM. WOODVILLE.

IN addition to the above account it appears the inoculation for the *vaccine pox* has been carried on extenſively in the courſe of the laſt year in London, and it appears to have afforded ſufficient proof that it deſtroys the capability of the human conſtitution, with regard to the variolus infection: and is generally a much ſlighter diſeaſe than the inoculated ſmall-pox. On theſe points there ſeems to be but one opinion among experienced profeſſional men. On ſome other points there exiſts a difference of opinion; but in whatever way theſe ſhall be decided, great advantages muſt ſtill remain from the ſubſtitution of the vaccine for the ſmall-pox. To ſatisfy, however, more generally the public mind, to accelerate the introduction of the ſubſtitute inoculation, and to clear up ſome obſcure points, but eſpecially to extend the benefit of the new practice, we are happy to be able to announce the commencement of an *Inſtitution ſolely for the Inoculation of the Cow-Pox.* We learn, that at the weſt end of the town, a little ſociety has been formed of gentlemen of the medical profeſſion, who have held a few meetings at Dr Pearſon's houſe, to which ſome other friends of the members were invited, in order to organize the intended inſtitution; and in conſequence a conſiderable progreſs has been already made in this laudable deſign. It is propoſed to inoculate the poor, who attend with letters of recommendation at the inſtitution; and, when it ſhall be neceſſary, to attend them at their own habitations. Medicines, and ſome articles of diet may be afforded. A temporary houſe is fixed upon in Clifford-ſtreet. The eſtabliſhment is honoured with the protection of his Royal Highneſs the Duke of York, as Patron.

AGRICULTURAL IMPROVEMENTS.

FEW experiments have yet been made with the view of aſcertaining in what way common manures promote the growth of vegetables: from what has been done, it would however ſeem, that ſuch ſubſtances merely ſupply the carbonaceous principle which is eſſential to all plants. The reſult of practical attempts likewiſe ſupports this ſuppoſition, as it is found, that the effects of theſe matters are for the moſt part in proportion to the quantity of this principle contained in them.

The utility of turnips is ſo great, that every fact reſpecting them demands the attention of the farmer. Theſe crops ſhould not be ſown too ſoon, as they are very apt to mildew, and

and by that means be deſtroyed. The beſt kinds are thoſe that ſtand deep in the ground, as they are leſs affected by troſts. In this reſpect too, much depends on the ſituation of the ground on which they are ſown. If the aſpect of it be towards the ſouth, in caſe of ſevere froſts, they are very liable to be deſtroyed by the repeated freezing and thawing that muſt take place; they ſhould therefore be firſt removed or fed off. Where the aſpect is northerly, they will be leſs expoſed to danger from this cauſe.

Soda has been applied to many domeſtic purpoſes with much effect and advantage, and it will be found equally uſeful in the *dairy*, in thoſe hot ſeaſons where the milk veſſels cannot be kept ſweet without much labour and difficulty. The uſe of a little of this ſubſtance not only renders them clean, and perfectly free from ſmell, but corrects the tendency which the wood, under ſuch circumſtances, has to ſpoil the milk.

The cultivation of food for the purpoſe of feeding hogs has been little attended to by the farmer. It is certain, however, that thoſe animals, when kept in the moſt advantageous ways, afford very conſiderable profits on almoſt every deſcription of farm. Clover, potatoes, and carrots are articles with which they may be fed, and even fattened, when properly managed, at a very ſmall expence. The parſnip is likewiſe well known to be uſeful in this way; and probably the root of the *white beet*, if it were properly tried, would be found ſtill more uſeful, as experiment has ſhewn it to contain the *ſaccharine principle* in a large proportion, and it can be cultivated with very little difficulty.

A NEW METHOD OF PRESERVING BUTTERFLIES AND MOTHS.

From the Journal de Phiſique, Vol. I.

THIS method conſiſts in fixing the the plumage of the wings on paper, ſo as to ſhew both their upper and under ſides, without injuring the colour.

The cement made uſe of is prepared in the following manner; to a thick, clear, and colourleſs ſolution of gum Arabic, in cold diſtilled water, add a little alum and common ſalt to take off its luſtre when dry. This fluid, when thinly ſpread on ſtiff writing paper, is capable of detaching with great eaſe, and fixing without injury, the plumage of the wings of butterflies that are applied to it; theſe, however, ought to be freſh, in order to ſucceed completely. The mode of operating is to double a half ſheet of ſtiff paper, and on one ſide of the fold to cover with the cement, by means of a ſhort camel hair brush, a ſpace equal to the ſize of the butterfly. The inſect is to be gently laid on the cement with a pair of pincers, and on the correſponding part of the other fold an equal ſpace is to be covered with the cement: the paper being now doubled, and gently preſſed with the palm of the hand, is to be laid in a few ſheets of ſoft paper, and ſubjected for a few minutes to the moderate action of a common preſs: open the paper carefully, and take off, with the point of a penknife, the membranous part of the wings, and on the oppoſite ſides of the paper will be found the upper and under ſurface of the wings in all their brilliancy: the feet and body ſhould be repreſented by an accurate copy of the original, and then the inſect is complete, and it may be preſerved in this ſtate many years without material injury.

THE PRINCE OF GEELAUN AND THE KING MOUSE:

A PERSIAN TALE.

[Altered from Mr Scott's Tranſlation of the Bahar-Danuſh.]

ANCIENT hiſtorians have related, that in time paſt, owing to the viciſſitudes of fortune, and the revolutions of the ſkies, in a wilderneſs on the confines of Geelaun, a mouſe being ſeated on the throne of empire, extended his command over all the wild beaſts and reptiles of the vicinity. A fox being entruſted with the important office of his prime miniſter, exerted the utmoſt activity in conducting and regulating the affairs of his kingdom.

By chance, a caravan paſſing through the wilderneſs, a camel belonging to it, very much fatigued, ſunk under his burden, and was left behind in the deſert. When he had forgotten the ſtrokes of his driver, and the painfulneſs of his pack-ſaddle, he began to graze, and in a ſhort time became ſleek and fat. The fox having obtained intelligence of his ſituation, repreſented it to the monarch mouſe, ſaying, "In the dominions of your majeſty, a camel of broken *mahar**, delivered from the burden of the pack-ſaddle, has taken up his abode; and in that part of the wood, particularly appropriated to the royal uſe, commits depredations on the trees and fruits of which your majeſty delights to eat. Whatever pleaſes his taſte, without fear or dread, he devours. Without your majeſty's permiſſion, his eſtabliſhment in theſe dominions cannot accord with the rules of policy; becauſe, if ſuch a ſtrong and bulky animal ſhould long roam thus at his pleaſure, in proceſs of time he will grow powerful, and may entertain the rebellious deſign of wreſting the empire from your majeſty. It is therefore adviſeable that your majeſty ſummon him to the preſence, that he may be deterred from ſuch conduct. If he ſubmits in humility to your authority, your majeſty may admit him among your dependants, and confer favours upon him, and it may be for your intereſt to draw into the royal ſervice ſuch a powerful animal; but if, proud of his bulk and ſtrength, he refuſes liege obedience, it will be proper, before he has acquired much power, or conſpired with the factious, to prevent his deſigns by ſome ſtratagem."

The king mouſe, approving his prudent vizier's advice, commanded the attendance of the camel, and the fox undertaking the buſineſs himſelf, by art and cunning drew the mahar thro" the noſe of the camel, and conducted him to the imperial court. The camel, when he ſaw only a mouſe, was not impreſſed with his dignity, and paced off again without notice; upon which the little king, feeling this affront as a cauſe of degradation in the eyes of his courtiers and dependants, thus addreſſed the fox:

"O loyal vizier, although thy advice is doubtleſs always founded on fidelity and attachment, yet notwithſtanding thy wiſdom and ſage policy, this affair has turned out contrary to the laws of propriety. As the form of our gracious perſon is ſomewhat diminutive, though thoſe who have penetrating minds, and are judges of intrinſic worth, may conceive the dignity of our nature, yet thoſe who judge only from appearances have not that happineſs. The ſtupid camel was not worthy of the honour of admiſſion to our preſence, and the bringing him to our court was departing from the circle of prudence. Perhaps if he had not ſeen us, he might have had ſome dread of us in his mind; but now it is vaniſhed, he is become proud, and the unreflecting partizans of faction have now the means of diſturbance and rebellion."

The fox replied, "Let not your majeſty be alarmed at this unlucky accident, for though this beaſt is ſtrong, and from his crooked nature has ſtrength in his neck, yet, agreeably to the maxim, that every overgrown body is a fool, he is not endowed with wiſdom. Hence it is that an infant, putting the mahar through his noſtrils, leads him where he pleaſes. With all his ſtrength, he is a coward at heart, I will therefore ſpeedily ſubject him to your majeſty's authority, and make him ſubmit to rank among your dependants."

In the mean time, the camel, with a contented mind, roamed through the wilder-

* A *mahar*, is a bridle formed of a ſtick paſſing through the noſtrils, at each end of which a cord is tied.

derneſs, and lived in perfect eaſe and ſatisfaction, while the fox was daily contriving expedients, and laying ſnares to entangle him. At length, the camel one day, out of greedineſs, the vileſt of all faults, lifting up his head, browſed the branches of a tree, and, the ſtring of his mahar entangling in them, his head remained hanging. The unfortunate beaſt began to cry out; when the fox, learning his condition, acquainted the monarch mouſe, who, riſing from his throne, advanced with joyful exhultation. Aſcending the tree, and ſitting on the branch near the camel, he vauntingly addreſſed him, "Happy beaſt! that feaſteſt thus on delicious fruits!" The fox next exclaimed, "Ignorant wretch, ſuch is the conſequence of thy diſobedience. Hadſt thou bowed thy head in ſubmiſſion to his majeſty, and ſought an aſylum under the ſhade of his protection, thou hadſt not this day, with ſuch diſgrace and helpleſſneſs, been taken captive in the ſnare. There is now no other alternative but to reſign thyſelf to thy fate."

The camel now, from his great folly and cowardice, began to cry out, and ſaid; "Though great crimes have been committed by me, yet I now aſk pardon for my faults. With inward fidelity, I proſtrate myſelf at his majeſty's throne, and ſeek refuge under the ſhade of your lordſhip's bounty. If, forgiving my errors and offences, you will deliver me from this calamity, and receive me under the ſhadow of your mercy, it will not be deviating from your auguſt virtues."

The mouſe having agreed to the camel's requeſt, tore in pieces with his teeth the rope of the mahar, entangled among the branches, and relieved him from his diſtreſs. The ſtupid long-necked animal, having returned proper thanks, bowed his head to the authority of the little long-tailed, ſhort-necked ſovereign, and, with all his bulk and ſuperior ſize, ſubmitted to the mouſe; who, ſwelling with exultation, could ſcarcely contain himſelf in his hole. He ordered the camel to graze all day at his pleaſure, and at night attend at the preſence, to guard the royal apartments.

Some time after this, the wood-cutters of the prince of Geelaun, ſeeing the camel in the foreſt without an owner, ſeized and conducted him to the prince's ſtables; of which the fox being informed, repreſented the affair to the ſublime audience. The mouſe king was enraged at the occurrence, and the next day, when the wood-cutters returned to work, addreſſed them from his hole, ſaying, "It is unbecoming a noble mind and a generous ſoul to lay the foundation of enmity and contention, without any cauſe of diſpute. Wiſdom dictates that your maſter return me the camel, and avoid ſhedding the blood of the innocent. If this is not done, let him prepare for war, for I will not by any means depart from my claim." The wood-cutters were overwhelmed with aſtoniſhment at this terrific addreſs from the mouſe, which had not the leaſt accordance with his nature; and, as a miracle, repreſented it to the prince; who laughed at it as ridiculous, and forebad his courtiers to talk of it.

When intelligence of this reached the king of the mice, he addreſſed the fox, by way of learning his opinion, ſaying, "It cannot be any ways conſiſtent with dignity and empire to ſubmit to theſe affronts; therefore, our wiſe reſolve is taken, to call together the commanders of our forces, and prepare in the beſt manner for this important undertaking. Having collected the requiſites for warfare and defence, we will march to battle." The vizier agreeing in opinion with his majeſty, an army ſo vaſt, that the moſt ſubtile arithmeticians confeſſed themſelves incapable to count its numbers, ſoon ſurrounded the imperial throne. The whole plain of the country was covered with mice.

Firſt of all, by direction of the vizier, he was reſolved to undermine the treaſury of the enemy, and carry off all his money. This was effected in a ſhort time; ſo that nothing remained in the vaults of the prince of Geelaun, but torn bags, and mouſe-eaten cheſts; while the treaſurers had not the leaſt ſuſpicion of the theft. This important object being happily attained, the king commanded his vizier to look out for ſome of the ſons of *men* graced with ability, who might take upon him the further operations of the war, and raiſe an army of mortals for his majeſty's ſervice.

By chance, a diſtreſſed ſoldier of for-

fortune, with his brethren and dependants, having left his home in ſearch of employment, paſſed through the deſert, where he beheld numbers of mice ſkipping about, and playing, with golden coins in their mouths. The officer, much diſtreſſed, and ſo poor that he would have let fly his arrow at the ſmall morſel of a cat, longed vehemently to ſeize the money from the little animals. Suddenly, a venerable mouſe popping his head from his hole, addreſſed him, ſaying, "My lord, if you deſire to enjoy the goods of the world, in ſpite of fortune, and acquire much money, enter into our ſervice, and at once be rich in ſilver and gold."

The young captain, regarding the opportunity as moſt happy, now found his ſtar fortunate. Through the mediation of the mouſe, he was introduced to the whiſkered monarch; who agreed to allow him a ſum, far exceeding his hopes or deſerts, for which he ſigned an immediate order on his ſecret treaſures; and having conferred upon him the important ſtation of generaliſſimo, recommended the utmoſt ſpeed in levying forces, and collecting ſtores of war.

The officer immediately wrote to all his friends and comrades of his wonderful adventure, obſerving, that at a time when virtue and liberality had deſerted from among mankind, encouragement and generous treatment were only to be found in the ſervice of the king of the mice, who poſſeſſed immenſe ſecret treaſures and buried hoards of wealth. Baſely-minded men, who are naturally the ſlaves of money, regarding the opportunity of acquiring it as moſt precious, now collected from all quarters; ſo that in a ſhort time a great army was embodied, and all the requiſites for offenſive operations in readineſs.

The king of the mice, attended by his motley hoſt, now marched from his ſubterraneous capital, and ſounded the drums of valour in the field of war. The prince of Geelaun, rouſed by the alarm, ſummoned his miniſters and generals to an aſſembly, and conſulted with them, ſaying, that "though in this world of viciſſitudes ſtrange events occur, yet ſuch a ridiculous one as the preſent is very vexatious. To be engaged againſt a mouſe is truly diſhonouring. However, having conſidered well what is neceſſary to be done, let us form our plans."

The council repreſented, that ſince the enemy had commenced hoſtilities, there was no remedy but to give them battle. Upon which the prince, ordering out his troops, commanded his ſtores to be opened, and the ſums neceſſary for warlike diſburſements to be iſſued: but when the gates of his treaſury were unlocked, not a veſtige of the ſtolen money remained. In this dilemma, the prince for the preſent ſatisfied his troops with promiſes, and marching from his capital, planted his ſtandard in oppoſition to that of the enemy, on the field of battle.

At ſun-ſet, the king of the mice commanded his body-guards to execute a ſecret expedition which he had committed to them. The army of mice, more numerous than ſwarms of piſmires, or flights of locuſts, having in the night entered the enemy's camp, gnawed to pieces with their teeth the leathers of the ſtirrups, the reins of the bridles, the parchment of the drums, the bow-ſtrings, and, in like manner, whatever they found made of leather or cloth. Having completely finiſhed their deſigns, they returned triumphant to the camp of their ſovereign; who, at this important criſis, drawing out his human allies in line of battle, marched at their head, and commanded them to diſplay their valour like heroes.

The ſpies of the prince informed him of the motions of the enemy to ſurprize his camp; upon which he commanded the heralds and generals to prepare the various diviſions of the army, and make ready for battle. The troops, on haſtening to form, were confounded at the damage done to their ſaddles and weapons, and panic-ſtricken at their forlorn condition. The bands of the ſovereign mouſe, regarding the confuſion of the enemy, as the forerunner of victory and ſucceſs, charged with furious valour, and in an inſtant made whole ſquadrons a mercileſs ſacrifice to their ſharp fabres. The ſurvivors made their eſcape. The prince, with much difficulty and diſgrace, having eſcaped from the field, ſhut himſelf up in his citadel; leaving all his effects, tents, and royal equipage, an offering to the plunder of the conquerors.

The prince next diſpatched an ambaſſador, and requeſted that, without the ſeizure of his country, he might be received under the ſhadow of protection; and the king of mice, notwithſtanding the meanneſs of his nature, agreeably to the axioms of the liberal, practiſing the laws of generoſity, and diſplaying magnanimity, ſent back all the plunder, and ſaid, "Our motive for kindling the flames of ſlaughter was not the conqueſt of your dominions, but the reſtoration of our camel."

The prince eſteeming this demand as moſt auſpicious, having caparizoned the camel in gorgeous houſings, trappings ſet with jewels, and a ſilken mahar, diſpatched him to the preſence of the king of mice, and offering many apologies, had a pardon granted him. The king of mice, having returned victorious and triumphant to his ſubterraneous capital, diſmiſſed his human auxiliaries with ſatisfactory rewards; and the camel, as before the war, was allowed to forage at large in the wilderneſs, having the higheſt rank of nobility conferred upon him by his ſovereign; who, from his unexpected ſucceſs, exalted his head to the ſummit of the ſkies, and notwithſtanding his ſhortneſs of neck, acted as if cats were not in exiſtence.

If the prince of Geelaun, inſtead of contemning the mouſe, had prepared to repel the enemy, by a very little attention, all this diſgrace and humiliation might have been prevented. Had he preferred conciliation, that depended only on a ſingle camel; or if he had bent his attention properly to the deſtruction of his enemy, one cat would have effected the object. As he deviated from the maxims of the prudent (who adviſe that an enemy ſhould never be deſpiſed) and purſued the paths of negligence and ſelf-conceit, he ſuffered the evil conſequences of ſuch conduct.

REVIEW OF NEW BOOKS.

The Scottiſh Gallery; or Portraits of eminent Perſons of Scotland; many of them after pictures by the celebrated Jameſon, at Taymouth, and other Places, with brief Accounts of the Characters repreſented, and an Introduction on the Riſe and Progreſs of Painting in Scotland. By John Pinkerton. Royal 8vo. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Harding.

THIS publication, we believe, is the firſt that has appeared in which Scottiſh portraits have alone been introduced: in Birch's Lives, ſome few eminent perſons of that nation were inſerted, but the proportion was very inconſiderable.—Few countries can boaſt a greater number of diſtinguiſhed characters both in literature and in arms than Scotland; and the talents of Jameſon, the pupil of Rubens, and a fellow labourer with Vandyke, were exerted to perpetuate their likeneſſes. Mr Pinkerton, whoſe zeal in the cauſe of learning and ſcience have been ſhewn on frequent occaſions, unwilling that any of theſe valuable portraits ſhould periſh by time or neglect, before they had been both preſerved and multiplied by the hand of the engraver, has engaged in this undertaking with the moſt diſintereſted views. 'His ſole motives,' he declares, 'were his own curioſity, and a warm inborn wiſh, which has ſtimulated moſt of his literary endeavours, that his countrymen ſhould not neglect their native productions of art and literature. To emolument he never looked; and after the ſacrifice of much time, will be contented to find that he has made but a ſmall ſacrifice of gold.'

The Introduction contains a ſhort view of the Riſe and Progreſs of Painting in Scotland; we wiſh that it had been conſiſtent with the author's plan to have enlarged on this part of his ſubject, as it is of an intereſting and amuſing nature. It is conjectured by Mr P. from the antient and continual commerce between Scotland and the Netherlands, that the firſt artiſts were Flemings. So early as the year 1430, painting had become very common; as is proved by the following curious anecdote, taken from Bowar, the continuator of Fordun:

'A

'A Highland robber having taken two cows from a poor woman, ſhe ſwore ſhe would wear no ſhoes till ſhe had complained to the king. The ſavage, in ridicule of her oath, nailed horſe ſhoes to her feet. When her wounds were healed, ſhe proceeded to the royal preſence, told her ſtory, and ſhewed the ſcars. The juſt monarch inſtantly diſpatched orders to ſecure the thief, who being brought to Perth, and condemned, "the king commanded that he ſhould be clothed in a canvas frock, on which was painted the figure of a man faſtening horſe-ſhoes to a woman's feet. In this dreſs he was exhibited through the ſtreets of the city for two days, then dragged at the tail of a horſe to the gallows, and hanged."

The native artiſts, however, according to our author, commenced with Jameſon; who was born at Aberdeen, and who burſt forth at once with meridian ſplendour. Many particulars of the life of this eminent painter are given by Lord Orford in his Anecdotes of Painting; to which the preſent author has made a few additions, and has ſubjoined a catalogue of his works. The largeſt collection of his portraits is that at Taymouth, the ſeat of the Earl of Breadalbane, whoſe anceſtor, Sir Colin Campbell, was the painter's chief patron. The account of the perſon who was employed to copy theſe valuable pictures is truly affecting:

'This artiſt was the late ingenious Mr Robert Johnſon of Newcaſtle, whoſe death, while employed in this taſk, is deeply to be regretted. He had copied about fifteen; and four remained to be done, the Marquis and Earl of Argyle, and two from the Genealogical Tree, when the editor was ſurpriſed with an account of his deplorable fate, in a letter from Meſſrs Moriſons, dated 18th Nov. 1796. It ſtates that, a few days before, they had received a letter from the man with whom Johnſon lodged at the village of Kenmore, deſiring them to ſend for him, as he was quite delirious; and by expreſs the day following they were informed of his death. That, in his anxiety to complete his labour, (he was to have been at Taymouth in June, but a fit of illneſs prevented him till Auguſt) he would ſit all day in a room without fire: a violent cold was the conſequence; which neglect increaſed to a fever, "it flew to his brain, and, terrible to relate, he was bound with ropes, beat, and treated like a madman." This ignorance of the people around him was happily enlightened by the caſual arrival of a phyſician, who ordered bliſters; and poor Johnſon died in peace! Though the editor endeavoured to ſolace himſelf by the reflection that he was giving bread to an ingenious man, whoſe fate was thus decreed, yet he could not help deeply feeling his being the innocent cauſe of an event ſo deplorable in all its circumſtances.

'His correſpondent at the ſame time informed him, that Johnſon had been bound apprentice to Bewick, by his father, an aged carpenter of Gateshead near Newcaſtle—that Mr Bewick obſerving his uncommon genius for drawing, employed him to trace the figures on the wood in his elegant hiſtory of quadrupeds—that he had been employed about ſix months, on his own account, before he engaged to go to Taymouth, and that his labour ſupported his aged parents.'

The volume contains fifty two portraits, among whom will be found perſons truly illuſtrious, by their rank, their genius, and their ſcience; ſince among them we diſcover the names of Knox, Buchanan, Johnſton, Drummond of Hawthornden, Fletcher of Salton, James Gregory, and Maclaurin.

Mr P. concludes his preface with obſerving that, 'if encouragement ſhould ariſe, another volume of this ſize might contain the moſt curious of the remaining portraits; and beyond that extent, materials can hardly be found.' We hope that the work will meet with the patronage of the public, as the nature of it is intereſting in no common degree, and the engravings are generally well executed.

Tracts on the Nature of Animals and Vegetables. By Lazaro Spallanzani, R. P. U. P. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Cadell, jun. and Davies.

WE ſhall endeavour to lay the contents of this very curious and entertaining work before our readers by a ſhort analyſis.

The

The *firſt* tract contains obſervations and experiments on the animalcula of different vegetable infuſions; and the object of theſe experiments was to aſcertain, whether the progreſs of boiling, long-continued, was deſtructive to the animalcula contained in the infuſions of vegetable ſubſtances. The event of the trials is thus ſummarily given:

'Thus, it clearly reſults, that long boiling the ſeed infuſions, does not prevent the production of animalcula. To explain why the infuſions boiled for the ſhorteſt time have the feweſt animalcula, I may obſerve: That animalcula ſhould appear in infuſions, it is neceſſary the ſubſtances infuſed, ſenſibly begin to diſſolve; for, as this diſſolution is effected, or at leaſt for a certain time, the number of animalcula augments. Seeds of plants, boiled for a ſhorter time, are, for a ſhorter period, encompaſſed and penetrated by the diſſolving power of the fire; conſequently, when put to macerate, will not be ſo ſoon decompoſed.'

On extending the experiment, it appeared that animalcula might be produced even after the ſeeds had been roaſted, and ground like coffee:

'Further, I ſubjected vegetable ſeeds to the moſt intenſe heat, the heat of burning coals, and the flame from a blowpipe. I expoſed the ſeeds in an iron plate upon coals. When converted to cinders, I reduced them to powder, and made as many infuſions as there were kinds of ſeed. The cinders from the blowpipe were extremely dry and hard. I could ſcarcely believe my eyes, when I ſaw animalcula in theſe infuſions.'

The next ſet of experiments was made to aſcertain the effect of boiling on the animalcula, when the infuſions were encloſed in veſſels hermetically ſealed. It was ſtrikingly fatal:

'I thence concluded, that the heat of boiling water for half a minute, was fatal to all animalcula of the largeſt kind; even to the middle ſized, and the ſmalleſt, of thoſe which I ſhall term animalcula of the higher claſs, to uſe the energetic expreſſion of M. Bonnet; while the heat of two minutes did not affect thoſe I ſhall place in the lower claſs.'

Not ſatisfied with this general reſult the author proceeded to determine the particular degree of heat which is deſtructive to the animalcula:

'We know, that the heat of boiling water is about 212°. Theſe infuſions were of this heat at leaſt, as appeared by the marks they exhibited of ebullition, the whole time the ſurrounding water boiled. Philoſophers know, that water, boiled in a cloſe veſſel, acquires a greater degree of heat, than when boiled in an open. To know how much leſs than half a minute the boiling might be abridged, and animalcula of the higher claſs yet exiſt, I made uſe of a ſecond-pendulum, and immerſed the veſſels in boiling water for a given number of ſeconds, beginning with 29. In a word, boiling for a ſingle ſecond prevented their exiſtence; and I could only employ a degree of heat leſs than that of boiling water; for example, 209, 207, 205, 203°, deſcending to a degree which would not injure their production.

'At a medium of 11°, I deſcended from 200, to 189, 178, 167°. Thus, I had four claſſes of experiments, correſponding to the numbers 200, 189, 178, 167. In each claſs were nine ſpecies of ſeeds, which made thirty-ſix veſſels. After the time neceſſary for the production of animalcula, I broke the hermetical ſeals, but ſaw none of the higher claſs at 167°. I continued this retrogade motion by 11°, and came to 155 and 110°; ſo that I had five claſſes of infuſions, and forty-five veſſels to examine. Not a ſingle animalcule was ſeen of the higher claſs in veſſels hermetically ſealed, and expoſed to the moderate heat of 113°. This was during the middle of April: the thermometer in the ſhade ſtood at 88°. I took eighteen veſſels: nine had been expoſed to 99° of heat, and nine to 88°. No animalcula of the higher claſs were produced in the former; but I found them in the latter. In each veſſel, the quantity and kind of animalcula, as in veſſels not ſubjected to heat. The degree of heat fatal to them, was 92°.

'Animalcula of the lower claſs, exiſt in ſealed veſſels expoſed to the heat of 212°; while thoſe of the higher claſs hardly appear at 92°: But, when produced, the ſame intenſity of heat that is fatal to the one, alſo deprives the other of life; and animalcula of the higher, as well as of the lower

lower claſs, periſh at 106, or at moſt at 108.'

From farther trials, it appeared that the eggs of the animals, which were expoſed to heat, withſtood it better than the animals themſelves. The ſame obſervation applies to plants and their ſeeds.

The author afterward ſubjected animalcula to the action of freezing.

'During winter, I ſubjected the animalcula to new experiments. While the infuſions preſerved their fluidity, there was no particle of ice obſerved; which was occaſioned by the quantity of vegetable oil the infuſions contained, which ſecured them againſt freezing. Notwithſtanding the cold killed the animalcula of ſeveral infuſions, there were ſome more robuſt ſpecies that ſupported it. I took the advantage of a very cold day; and although the thermometer fell to 13° under the freezing point, and the infuſions were covered with ice; upon breaking it, and preſenting ſome minute portions to the microſcope, I found living animalcula in the parts not completely congealed. They were immured in little grottos of ice. In thoſe portions abſolutely frozen, the animalcula were dead. They did not revive upon melting the ice. The reſt retained their vivacity in the parts of the fluid not yet congealed. I could not decide whether the animalcula periſh, becauſe the cold has deſtroyed them, or becauſe the infuſions have loſt their fluidity. It is a fact acknowledged by philoſophers, that water does not loſe its fluidity at 20, or even 22° below freezing, when at perfect reſt; which may be attained by incluſion in a cloſe veſſel, and removal from external motion. In this way, the animalcula ſurvived, although they ſuffered cold almoſt 20° below zero, in water not frozen. They ſwam about but with a ſlower motion than uſual, while the thermometer ſtood at 18° below the freezing point. This was the greateſt degree they could ſupport, as they died at 20°, although the water was not frozen, but was beginning to be covered by a thin cruſt. Two ſpecies ſurvived; and I may perhaps, or even without perhaps, ſay, they would have ſupported a more intenſe cold, had I been able to keep the water longer fluid.'

Many curious obſervations occur, on the torpid ſtate of ſome animals during winter; and M. Spallanzani corrects the common opinion that they are cold-blooded: he admits that their blood is refrigerated *after* they become lethargic: but he found, by experiment, that it was warm before they paſſed into the torpid ſtate, which he thinks may at any time be produced by cold.

The ſlighteſt ſhock of electricity proved fatal to all kinds of the animalcula. The odour of camphor, of turpentine, of tobacco, of ſulphur, and the application of oleaginous or ſpirituous liquors, were all deſtructive of them. The animalcula lived, and performed their functions, for a conſiderable time, *in vacuo*: but none can ſupport the want of air beyond a month. In ſpeaking on this ſubject, the author ſeems to diſcredit the ſtories which have been told, of living animals diſcovered in the centre of ſtones or trees.

'It is requiſite, ſays he, they ſhould be ſupported by authority; which is moſt eſſential, in a caſe ſo ſtrange and paradoxical. Until we obtain facts better aſcertained, we think ourſelves entitled to aſſert, that there is in nature no known animated being, which can exiſt without enjoying the advantages preſented by air.'

The chapter on the generation of animalcula is extremely curious, but cannot be made intelligible without the engraving.

In the ſucceeding chapter, we find an account of a polypus, not accurately deſcribed before, which is bell-ſhaped, and adheres by its long tail to the lentil-root. It multiplies by dividing longitudinally into two: other claſſes of animalcula multiply by dividing tranſverſely.

On making experiments with infuſions expoſed to the air, and others more or leſs ſecluded from it, the author came to the following concluſion:

'The number of animalcula developed, is proportioned to the communication with the external air. The air either conveys the germs to the infuſions, or aſſiſts the expanſion of thoſe already there.'

The *Second Tract* contains obſervations and experiments on the *vermiculi ſeminales hominum, animalium aliorumque*;

que; with an examination of the theory of organic molecules.

The tract on ſome ſingular animals, which may be killed, and afterward revived, is highly curious and intereſting. This eſſay turns chiefly on the properties of the wheel-animal, and the ſloth. The wheel-animals may be killed and revived repeatedly, by keeping them dry, and without ſand, and afterward moiſtening them with water. The proceſs of death and reſurrection was carried on ſucceſsfully eleven times, with the ſame inſect. It is a ſingular circumſtance that their revival cannot be effected without the preſence of ſand. We ſhall tranſcribe the entertaining commencement of the ſecond chapter of this eſſay:

'The ſand of tiles, the mud of ditches, and of marſhes, which paſs in the vulgar eye for the vileſt of matter, are to the philoſophic obſerver a ſource of wonder, from the ſingular beings they contain. To ditches and marſhes we owe the armed, club, funnel, bulb, and knotted polypus. It is there we find the freſh water worm, the boat worm, and the ſpringing millepede. Theſe animals have confounded the human mind, and have created a new philoſophy. When the ſand of tiles does not ſerve for an abode to wheel-animals, it will not for that reaſon be leſs famous or remarkable. An animal, which revives after death, and which, with certain limits, revives as often as we pleaſe, is a phenomenon, as incredible as it ſeems improbable and paradoxical. It confounds the moſt received ideas of animalty: it produces new ideas, and becomes an object no leſs intereſting to the researches of the naturaliſt, than to the ſpeculations of the metaphyſician. But the celebrity of this ſand will increaſe, when we learn, that it contains other animals, which, like the wheel-animal, poſſeſſes the property of reſurrection; ſo that we may almoſt ſay, all the animals living in ſand are deſtined to be immortal. I have diſcovered in ſand two new ſpecies of animals, which I proceed to deſcribe. I lament that their rareneſs has prevented me from extending my obſervations as far as I could have wiſhed, or rather as far as the importance of the ſubject would have required.'

The laſt piece in this volume is a memoir, by the late excellent M. Bonnet, on the re-production of the head of the land-ſnail, containing ſome additional details concerning his obſervations on that curious ſubject.

Since the appearance of this volume, the public prints have announced the death of its celebrated author. We apprehend that he had too little of the *Sloth* in his compoſition, to allow us to hope that he will revive from the ſleep from which no man awakes in this world.

A General View of the Hiſtory of Switzerland; with a particular Account of the Origin and Accompliſhment of the late Swiſs Revolution. By John Wood, Maſter of the Academy eſtabliſhed at Edinburgh by the Honourable the Board of Truſtees for the Improvement of Arts in Scotland. 8vo. 6s. Boards. *Cawthorne.*

THE recent and moſt important tranſactions in Switzerland have excited ſo general an intereſt throughout almoſt every part of Europe, that the preſent publication will be an acceptable guide to many readers, who wiſh to form a competent idea of the hiſtory of that country. The author did not deſign it for a complete account of the government and laws of the Helvetic confederacy, but rather as an introduction to the hiſtory of Switzerland, and of the late revolution in its affairs. Beſides the French and Swiſs authorities from which he draws up his narrative, he acknowledges himſelf moſt indebted to that judicious traveller, Mr Coxe. It is alſo a circumſtance favourable to this performance, that, for a conſiderable time before and ſince the commencement of the preſent war, Mr Wood reſided in Switzerland; where he formed an intimacy with ſeveral eminent perſons, who made him acquainted with a number of facts which have operated towards overturning the government and happineſs of the Helvetian republic.

Of the ancient hiſtory of Switzerland, we know little more than what the Roman authors have recorded. The Helvetians appear to have been deſcended from the Germans and Gauls, eſpecially the former. The ſame inſtitutions and cuſtoms, which Cæſar and Tacitus have attributed to the Germans, prevailed in Helvetia

i. e. that part of Switzerland which is ſituated between the Alps, the Rhine, the Rhone, and mount Jura. They were, alſo, in conjunction with the Cimbri and Teutones, vanquiſhed by the Romans. The policy and arts of their conquerors had ſcarcely made an impreſſion on them, when the inroads of the Goths, Vandals, Huns, and other northern tribes, involved them in the ſame calamities with their maſters. Some time after theſe events, we find the Burgundians and Alemanni in Helvetia. Next ſucceeded the Franks, who introduced the Feudal Syſtem. In the eighth century, when Germany was ſeparated from the empire of the Franks, Helvetia underwent a diviſion. In the eleventh, it acknowleged the ſovereignty of Auſtria.

"During the twelfth century, when Helvetia was ſubject to the Houſe of Auſtria, various diſputes that aroſe between them and the Emperor induced ſeveral diſtricts, particularly thoſe of Uri, Schweits, and Underwalden, to enter into a cloſe alliance, in defence of their rights againſt the unjuſt attacks of the Emperor's governors. This alliance they were accuſtomed to renew formally every ten years, until the death of Fredetic II. in 1250. After this period commenced an interregnum, which threw the empire into anarchy and confuſion. The nobles and biſhops took the opportunity to endeavour to extend their power, and to encroach upon the privileges of the people. The latter put themſelves under the protection of Rodolph Count of Hapſburgh, who was choſen Emperor in 1273. This prince received in return a ſmall revenue from the canton of Helvetia, and he confirmed or beſtowed upon them various privileges."

Such was the origin of the memorable union between the Helvetic cantons, formed for the mutual defence of their liberties:—but it was much altered during the following centuries. At firſt, the confederates were not bound in a direct manner to each other:—"It was only ſince the convention of Stantz, and the treaty of the eight cantons with Fribourg and Soleure, that it took the form of a conſtant, general, and national union. From this period, the Swiſs, in virtue of a preſcription of long ſtanding, ſtrengthened by the acknowledgment of ſeveral deeds and treaties, became entirely independent of the empire."

For the purpoſe of ſupporting their independence, the Helvetic confederacy had deviſed a ſcheme for forming a regular army with the leaſt poſſible inconvenience to liberty. The youth were diligently trained to martial exciſes; the whole people were enrolled and regularly drilled; and a conſiderable number of well diſciplined troops were employed in foreign ſervice.

"The foreign ſervice of the Swiſs has been highly condemned, and often reprobated as a barbarous policy. But this ſyſtem, independent of furniſhing a body of well diſciplined forces, which could be recalled at a moment's notice, was attended with many advantages: it kept up the military ſpirit and national ardor of the people during a ſtate of profound peace, which continued, with few interruptions, for three hundred years; and it became the intereſt of thoſe foreign powers whom they furniſhed with their men, not to foment any diviſion among them which might be the means of rendering the preſence of theſe troops neceſſary at home. On the other hand, it was argued, that it introduced ideas among the higheſt and loweſt claſs of people very inconſiſtent with their ſituation, and drained the towns of their inhabitants. Notwithſtanding theſe evils, it certainly was preferable to a ſtanding body of troops with deſpotiſm, as in the other ſtates upon the continent."

The general view of the formation of the Helvetic confederacy is ſucceeded by an account of the particular conſtitution of its members. The author, however, purſuant to his plan, has ſelected only the leading circumſtances in the hiſtory, government, and policy of each ſtate. The choice is judicious, and well calculated to give a correct idea of the late government of each canton.

Practical Education; by Maria Edgeworth, Author of "Letters for Literary Ladies," and "The Parent's Aſſiſtant;"—and by Richard Lovel Edgeworth, F. R. S. and M. R. I. A. 4to. 1l. 10s. Boards. *Johnſon.*

(*Continued from Vol.* LXI. *p.* 838.)

WE ſhall finiſh our curſory analyſis

of this very important and useful Treatise by transcribing the subjects of the remaining chapters, and giving two or three short extracts.

Chap. 16. "*Geometry.*"
Chap. 17. "*Mechanics.*"
Chap. 18. "*Chemistry.*"
Chap. 19. "*Public and Private Education.*"
Chap. 20. "*Female Accomplishments, Masters and Governesses.*"
Chap 21. "*Memory and Invention.*"

'However disposed the world may be to admire that astonishing species of memory which is able to retain every idea that has once been presented to the mind, and which enables a man to repeat whole volumes of what he has read or heard, there will perhaps be little difference of opinion as to the superior utility of that memory which, though it be not remarkable for its faculty of repetition, has its whole collection of materials so dexterously, orderly, and conveniently arranged, that the mind can instantaneously find what is best suited to its immediate purpose. At a time when it was necessary that a General should remember every soldier's name, or a Demagogue the names of every citizen (vide Plutarch and Quintilian); or when ignorance of the art of printing rendered the memory the chief means of circulating knowledge; it might be necessary to cultivate its strongest retentive powers. In the present day, however, such talents are rather objects of admiration than utility, considered with respect to general exertion; for it rarely happens that those men, who are distinguished for an extraordinarily retentive memory, have been celebrated for any original productions of taste or genius. The mind seems to derive no strength, and to receive no nutriment from the vast load which is heaped upon it. It assimilates nothing to itself. Whatever is received into the memory lies there like food on a disordered stomach, crude and undigested. The Abbe de Longuerne, and the Florentine Librarian Magliabechi, are instances of the truth of this assertion: they were both remarkable in their day for their memory and learning: yet the former thought, "that two antiquarian books upon Homer, viz. *Antiquates Homericæ*, and *Homeri Cosmographia*, were preferable to Homer himself." He would rather have them, he declared, because with them he had all that was useful in the poet, without being obliged to go through his long stories, which put him to sleep. "As for that madman Ariosto," said he, "I sometimes divert myself with:"—'He was of opinion that the English have never done any good, since they renounced the study of Greek and Arabic for geometry and physics!!!'—The latter (Magliabechi) has left nothing of his own composition for the instruction of posterity, except an inscription round a medal! Such are sometimes the effects of a surprising memory and erudition on the taste, judgment, and imagination of the possessor; and, such may be its utility to the world!'

These and similar observations occur on the subject of a good memory; in the course of which, having enumerated a few of the methods which we employ to assist ourselves in remembering, the authors proceed to consider how the memory should be cultivated. The following passages will best explain their opinion on this subject:

'The mistaken notion that the memory must be exercised only in books, has been often fatal to the pupils of literary people. We remember best those things which interest us most; which are useful to us in conversation; in our daily business or amusement. So do children. On these things we should exercise their memory. Tell a boy who has lost his top, to remember at such a particular time to put you in mind of it, and if he does, give him another, he will probably remember your requests after this, better than you will yourself. Affectionate children will easily extend their recollective memories in the service of their friends and companions. "Put me in mind to give your friend what he asked for, and I will give it to him if you remember it at the right time.'

'A good memory for business depends upon local, well arranged associations. The man of business makes an artificial memory for himself out of the trivial occurrences of the day, and the hours as they pass recall their respective occupations. Children can acquire these habits very early in their education; they are eager to give their companions

companions an account of any thing they have ſeen or heard; their tutors ſhould become their companions, and encourage them by ſympathy to addreſs theſe narrations to them. Children who forget their leſſons in chronology, and their pence tables, can relate with perfect accuracy any circumſtances with which they have intereſted themſelves. This ſhews that there is no deficiency in their capacity. Every one who has had any experience of the pleaſure of talking, knows how intimately it is connected with the pleaſure of being liſtened to. The auditors, conſequently, poſſeſs ſupreme power over narrative childhood, without uſing any artifice, by ſimply ſhewing attention to well arranged, and well recollected narrative; and ceaſing to attend when the young orator's memory and ſtory become confuſed, he will naturally be excited to arrange his ideas. The order of *time* is the firſt and eaſieſt principle of aſſociation to help the memory. This, till young people acquire the ideas of cauſe and effect, will be their favourite mode of arrangement. Things that happen at the ſame time; things that are ſaid, thoughts that have occurred, at the ſame time, will recur to the mind together. We may obſerve, that ill educated people continue through life to remember things by this ſingle aſſociation; and conſequently, there is a heterogeneous collection of ideas in their mind, which have no rational connexion with each other; crowds which have accidentally met, and are forced to live for ever together.'

"Long before children read fluently for their own amuſement, they like to hear others read aloud to them, becauſe they have then the entertainment without the labour. We may exerciſe their memory by aſking for an account of what they have heard. But let them never be required to repeat in the words of the book, or even to preſerve the ſame arrangement; let them ſpeak in words of their own, and arrange their ideas to their own plan; this will exerciſe at once their judgment, invention, and memory.

"'Try if you can explain to me what I have juſt been explaining to you,' a ſenſible tutor will frequently ſay to his pupils; and he will ſuffer them to explain in a different manner from himſelf, he will only require them to remember what is eſſential to the explanation. In ſuch repetitions as theſe the mind is active, therefore it will ſtrengthen and improve.

"Dr Johnſon, who is ſaid to have had an uncommonly good memory, tells us, that when he was a boy, he uſed, after he had acquired any freſh knowledge from his books, to run and tell it to an old woman of whom he was very fond. This exerciſe was ſo agreeable to him, that it imprinted what he read upon his memory.

"By theſe obſervations we by no means inſinuate, that application to books is unneceſſary. We are ſenſible that accurate knowledge upon any ſubject cannot be acquired by ſuperficial converſation, that it can be obtained only by patient application. But we mean to point out, that an early taſte for literature may be excited in children by converſation, and that their memory ſhould be firſt cultivated in the manner which will give them the leaſt pain. When there is a motive for application, and when habits of induſtry have been gradually acquired, we may ſecurely truſt, that our pupils will complete their own education. Nor ſhould we have reaſon to fear, that thoſe, who have a good memory for all other things, ſhould not be able to retain all that is worth remembering in books. Children ſhould never be praiſed for merely remembering exactly what they read, they ſhould be praiſed for ſelecting with good ſenſe what is beſt worth their attention, and for applying what they remember to uſeful purpoſes."

Chap. 22. "*Taſte and Imagination.*"

Chap. 23. "*Wit and Judgment.*" We much doubt if the following receipt will make a *wit*:

"Thoſe who are deſirous to make their pupils witty, muſt ſacrifice ſome portion of their judgment to the acquiſition of the talent for wit; they muſt allow their children to talk frequently at random. Amongſt a multitude of hazarded obſervations, a happy hit may be now and then made; for theſe happy hits children who are to be made wits ſhould be praiſed; and they muſt acquire ſufficient courage to ſpeak from a curſory view of things; therefore the miſtakes they make from ſuperficial examination muſt

not be pointed out to them; their attention must be turned to the comic, rather than to the serious side of objects; they must study the different meanings and powers of words; they should hear witty conversation, read epigrams, and comedies; and in all company they should be exercised before numbers in smart dialogue and repartee."

Judgment.

In the observations on the method of cultivating the judgment of children, much good sense is discoverable. The first step is to teach them to examine and compare such external objects as are present to the senses:

"Let them compare the size and shape of different objects; let them frequently try what they can lift; what they can reach; at what distance they can see objects; at what distance they can hear sounds: by these exercises they will learn to judge of distances and weight; and they may learn to judge of the solid contents of bodies of different shapes, by comparing the observations of their sense of feeling and of sight. The measure of hollow bodies can be easily taken by pouring liquids into them, and then comparing the quantities of the liquids that fill vessels of different shapes. This is a very simple method of exercising the judgment of children; and, if they are allowed to try these little experiments for themselves, the amusement will fix the facts in their memory, and will associate pleasure with the habits of comparison. Rousseau rewards Emilius with cakes when he judges rightly; success, we think, is a better reward. Rousseau was himself childishly fond of cakes and cream."

Chap. 24. "*Prudence and Economy.*"

On the subject of *Economy*, the following observations occur:

"Economy is usually confined to the management of money, but it may be shewn on many other occasions: economy may be exercised in taking care of whatever belongs to us; children should have the care of their own cloaths, and if they are negligent of what is in their charge, this negligence should not be repaired by servants or friends, they should feel the real natural consequences of their own neglect, but no other punishment should be inflicted; and they should be left to make their own reflections upon their errors and misfortunes, undisturbed by the reproaches of their friends, or by the prosing moral of a governess or preceptor. We recommend, for we must descend to these trifles, that girls should be supplied with an independent stock of all the little things which are in daily use; housewifes and pocket books well stored with useful implements; and there should be no lending and borrowing amongst children. It will be but just to provide our pupils with convenient places for the preservation and arrangement of their little goods. Order is necessary to economy, and we cannot more certainly create a taste for order, than by shewing early its advantages in practice as well as in theory. The aversion to *old* things should, if possible, be prevented in children; we should not express contempt of *old* things, but we should treat them with increased reverence, and exult in their having arrived under our protection to such a creditable age. "I have had such a hat so long, therefore it does not signify what becomes of it!" is the speech of a *promising* little spendthrift. "I have taken care of my hat, it has lasted so long; and I hope I shall make it last longer," is the exultation of a young economist, in which his prudent friends should sympathise.

"Young children who are educated at home should, as much as possible, be educated to take a family interest in all the domestic expences. Parental reserve in money matters is extremely impolitic; as Mr Locke judiciously observes, that a father, who wraps his affairs up in mystery, and who "views his son with jealous eyes," as a person who is to begin *to live* when he dies, *must* make him an enemy by treating him as such. A frank simplicity and cordial dependence upon the integrity and upon the sympathy of their children, will ensure to parents their disinterested friendship. Ignorance is always more to be dreaded than knowledge."

"Before a young man goes into the world, it will be a great advantage to him to have some share in the management of his father's affairs; by laying out money for another person he will acquire habits of care, which will be useful to him afterwards in his own affairs. A father, who is building, or improving

improving grounds, who is carrying on works of any ſort, can eaſily allot ſome portion of the buſineſs to his ſon, as an exerciſe for his judgment and prudence. He ſhould hear and ſee the eſtimates of workmen, and he ſhould, as ſoon as he has collected the neceſſary facts, form eſtimates of his own, before he hears the calculation of others: this power of eſtimating will be of great advantage to gentlemen, it will circumſcribe their wiſhes, and it will protect againſt the low frauds of deſigning workmen."

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In thoughts that breath, and words that burn.

The various quotations contained in it having, at the time this work began to be printed, been untranſlated, the preſent author undertook the taſk, and declares he offers his performance *'pro bono publico*. Beſides the tranſlations of the quotations, the author has introduced ſtrictures on the Jacobins of both kingdoms, and cenſures on their practices, with ſome curious anecdotes. The readers and admirers of the Engliſh Purſuits of Literature will find entertainment in this ſupplement from an Hibernian aſſociate, who declares himſelf no hackney tranſlator; no party writer; no venal orator; but a citizen of the world, who will yield all loyal obedience (but no more) to any government or any maſter.

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POETRY.

ODE

FOR THE NEW YEAR.

BY MR FYS.

INCESSANT down the ſtream of Time,
And days, and years, and ages, roll,
Speeding through Fate's iron clime
To dark Oblivion's goal;
Loſt in the gulf of night profound,
No eye to mark their ſhadowy bound,
Unveils the deed of high renown,
The warlike chief's illuſtrious crown,
Shed o'er the darkling void a dubious fame,
And gild the paſſing hour with ſome immortal name.

Yet, evaneſcent as the fleeting cloud,
Driv'n by the wild winds o'er the varying ſkies,
Are all the glories of the great and proud,
On Rumour's idle breath that faintly riſe.
A thouſand garbs their forms aſſume,
Woven in vain Conjecture's loom;
Their dyes a thouſand hues diſplay,
Sporting in Fancy's fairy ray;
Changing with each uncertain blaſt,
Till, melting from the eyes at laſt,
The ſhadowy vapours fly before the wind,
Sink into viewleſs air, 'nor leave a track behind.'

But if the rapture train whom Heaven
inspires,
Of glory to record each deathless meed,
Tune to heroic worth their golden lyres,
And give to memory each godlike
deed,
Then shall the eternal guerdon wait
The actions of the wise and great;—
While as from black Oblivion's sway,
They bear the mighty name away,
And waft it, borne on pinion high,
With joyful carol to the sky,
Sage History, with eye severe,
Tracing aloft their bold career,
Clears the rich tale from Fiction's specious
grace,
And builds her sacred lore on Truth's eternal base,

I KEN HE LOO's ME WEEL.

BESIDE the burn the other day,
I tun'd my simple sang,
Young Jocky tripping came that way,
And play'd his pipe alang.
Upon the banks he took his seat,
And fain a kiss wou'd steal,
I rose and quickly did retreat,
Yet ken he loo's me weel.

Dear Peggy, then the shepherd cry'd
Do not my suit disdain;
Or treat wi' scornful airs and pride,
An honest-hearted swain.
I've ewes and lamb's that graze the mead,
To truth I can appeal;
They shall be your's sweet lass indeed,
If you *will loo me weel.*

The shepherd look'd and talk'd sae sweet,
Gude faith he won my heart;
For pit-a-pat I felt it beat,
To frown I had na art.
Mess John, the happy knot had ty'd,
Content is mine, I feel;
There canna be a happier bride
Because he *loo's me weel.*

THE VANITY OF LIFE,

BY THE LATE BISHOP HORNE.

SEE the leaves around us falling,
Dry and withered to the ground;
Thus to thoughtless mortals calling
With a sad and solemn sound.

'Sons of Adam,' once in Eden,
Blighted when like us you fell;
Hear the lecture, we are reading,
'Tis alas! the truth we tell.

Virgins much, too much presuming
On your boasted white and red;
View us late in beauty blooming,
Numbered now among the dead.

Griping Misers, nightly waking,
See the end of all your care;
Fled on wings of our own making,
We have left our owners bare.

Sons of honour, fed on praises,
Fluttering high on fancied worth,
Lo! the fickle air that raises
Brings us down to parent earth.

Learned Sophs, in systems jaded,
Who for new ones daily call;
Cease at length by us perswaded,
Ev'ry leaf must have a fall.

Youths, tho' yet no losses grieve you,
Gay in health and manly grace;
Let not cloudless skies deceive you,
Summer gives to Autumn place.

Venerable sires, grown hoary,
Hither turn the unwilling eye;
Think amidst your falling glory,
Autumn tells a Winter's nigh.

Yearly in our course returning,
Messengers of shortest stay;
Thus we preach this truth unerring
Heaven and Earth shall pass away.

On the tree of life eternal,
Man, let all your hopes be staid,
Which alone, for ever vernal;
Bears a leaf that ne'er shall fade.

RECEIPT TO WRITE A TRAGEDY.

TAKE a stout and valiant Hero,
And a Villain,—like a Nero,
One—with virtue overflowing,
'Tother always mischief doing.
Ferment the time with blood and war,
Let your Hero all things dare,
Shake the whole together,—so
What's above may be below,—
What's below may be above,—
Add *quantt. suff.* of *virtuous love.*

With ahs! and ohs! strew every page,
Keep it a month,—then let the stage,
Echo with groan, and moan, and sigh,
For you and for your Tragedy.

RECEIPT TO WRITE A COMEDY.

TAKE a man and a maiden o'erflowing
with love,
And a father who does not their passion
approve;
Let the old man advise, and the daughter
play tricks,
Her affections on some battered rake let her
fix;
Let him swear she's a Venus; and him a
true lover,
Then let the old Father her passion discover.

And Miſs being lock'd up in the old lumber garret,
Secluded from novels, from omber, and parrot;
Let the Captain be told, and juſt at the twilight,
Clamber over the roof, and leap in at the ſkylight;
Drop down on his knees, and declare he'll protect her;
Then pop in the father to read her a lecture,
While the lady looks up, and the lover looks down.
Be the father's brows cork'd to a terrible frown;
While the old man is beating the ground with his cane,
Let the Lovers appear his advice to diſdain,
And run round the ſtage in a fit of the rackets,
While papa loudly roars, he will pepper their jackets;

THE POOR LITTLE ORPHAN.

YOUNG, friendleſs, and left to the world's cruel ſcorn,
No ſunſhine my ſad dreary proſpect to bliſs,
Ah, better perhaps had I never been born,
Since charity ſleeps, at the call of diſtreſs.
Yet ſtill ſhall no evils my conſtancy ſhake,
Or turn me to deed's I may live to deplore;
For the Heaven which ſhelters, will never forſake
The poor little orphan that begs at your door.

And ſince death ſo unkindly hath robb'd me of friends,
Whom the tie of affection ſhould bind to my heart;
All my hope of ſupport now on Heaven depends,
And the bleſſings which bounty will often impart.
But I who now wander in ſearch of my bread,
Alas! oft in vain a kind ſhelter implore:
And the damp lowly earth is too often the bed,
Of the poor little orphan that begs at your door.

But alas! if I meet not with charity's aid,
By which the poor wanderer is oftentimes bleſt;
If ſtill no protection will offer its ſhade,
Beneath which I may lull my ſad ſorrows to reſt,
Oh then from kind Heaven a releaſe I muſt crave,
And the damp lowly earth will ere long be the grave,
And a reſpite from woes ſuch as theſe muſt implore;
Of the poor little orphan that begs at your door.

But compaſſion's full heart I have often heard ſigh,
And it view'd, and yet could not relieve my diſtreſs;
But regiſter'd are ſuch kind feelings on high,
And rewards of delight the poſſeſſor will bleſs,
And all ye, who tan tender compaſſion like this,
To thoſe, for whom life hath no comforts in ſtore;
May be the companions in the regions of bliſs,
Of the poor little orphan that begg'd at your door.

TO THE RAINBOW.

LOVELIEST of the meteor-train,
Girdle of the ſummer-rain,
Tinger of the dews of air,
Glowing viſion fleet as fair,
While the evening ſhower retires
Kindle thy unhurting fires,
And among the meadows near
Thy refulgent pil'ar rear;
Or amid the dark-blue cloud,
High thine orbed glories ſhroud,
Or the moiſtened hills between,
Bent in mighty arch be ſeen,
Thro' whoſe ſparkling portals wide,
Fiends of ſtorm and darkneſs ride.
Like Cheerfulneſs thou'rt wont to gaze
Always on the brighteſt blaze,
Canſt from ſetting ſuns deduce
Varied gleams and ſprightly hues;
And on louring gloom imprint
Smiling ſtreaks of gayeſt tint.

BRITISH PARLIAMENT.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

Continued from p. 54.

Meſſage from his Majeſty regarding correſpondence with Buonaparte.

Jan. 28. Lord Grenville moved an Addreſs, which was an echo of the Meſſage (ſee p. 53.) This being ſeconded and read, he moved their Lordſhips to agree to the ſame, prefacing his motion, with claiming the attention of their Lordſhips, not merely to the ſubſtance thereof, however important that might be, but to its ultimate conſequences. His Majeſty had deemed it neceſſary to call on the kingdom to ſupport a war of defence againſt a war of aggreſſion; in the proſecution and ultimate ſucceſs of which, the happineſs, nay, the very exiſtence of the liberties, and the rights of the people of this country depended. In calling for the ſupplies, no wanton expenditure of the public purſe could or would be juſtified, nor ought, but what actual neceſſity required. In premiſing thus far, more extenſive argument was required, and his Lordſhip conſidered it requiſite to enter fully into the preſent ſituation of the common enemy, and to regard France as governed by military deſpotiſm. Through the courſe of his argument, which was of the moſt eloquent and impreſſive nature, he took a view of the hiſtorical account of the ſorrows of France from the firſt violation of its old and original laws and cuſtoms, by the party rage of July 14, 1789, commonly called the deſtruction of the Baſtile, down to the laſt uſurpation of the modern Cromwell; and, from the concluſions applicable to each event, drew this general deduction, that nothing was ſufficiently ſtable, in that devoted country, to render friendſhip with its temporary or *hebdomedal* rulers, or even with their ſucceſſors, certain or ſecure. He doubted, at the ſame time, whether it would be the intereſt of Buonaparte to conclude a peace with this country. On the other hand, when he came to think of a general peace, he could ſee no intereſt the French Conſul could have in concluding it. The armie now acting on the frontiers, having no farther employment, they muſt neceſſarily be brought into the interior of the Republic, and the hiſtory of all military deſpotiſms ſhewed, that too great a number of troops always led to their ſubverſion from one part of the nation to the other. With this view, whatever may be the immediate objects of Buonaparte, no dependance could be placed on the ſincerity of his overtures; ſuppoſing that in other reſpects negociation was adviſeable. In order to judge of the good diſpoſitions of this man towards England, he would recall their attention to the treaty of Campo Formio, the articles of which were remitted by him to the Executive Directory by his confidential friends and agents Monge and Berthier, who are now employed by him in the firſt offices of the State. On that occaſion Monge, in his ſpeech to the Directory, declared that the termination of war upon the Continent would leave them at liberty to employ the whole of their efforts for the deſtruction of Great Britain; as the Governments of England and France were incompatible with each other, and *could not exiſt together*.---Such was the language of Monge, and ſuch, no doubt, were the ſentiments of the Firſt Conſul Buonaparte. After demonſtrating that whatever may be the clamour of French adherents, in this country, the Government never intended that the reſtoration of the ancient line of French Princes ſhould be the *ſine qua non* of a peace with France, his Lordſhip reminded the Houſe of that period when this country was deſerted by all its allies, when the whole forces of France had no other view or object but the deſtruction of Great Britain; when much of our force was employed in ſuppreſſing a rebellion in Ireland; and if, under ſuch circumſtances, the Parliament of this country, truſting to its own reſources, had determined to abide every chance of war, he made no doubt but in the preſent moment, when its ſucceſſes, and

that of its allies, were ſufficient to animate its hopes, and place it in a ſituation to demand terms of advantage and ſecurity, it would manifeſt, that as it had already ſhown itſelf ready to meet the proportion of the extent, ſo would it now exhibit its readineſs to meet the duration of its dangers.

The Duke of Bedford roſe. Peace, ſaid his Grace, is and muſt be a deſirable object; and the ſad experience of facts, crying facts, perſuaded in terms moſt intelligent, the neceſſity of graſping it, even on unequal terms. He inſiſted, "on unequal terms;" for conſidering the conqueſts we had made, the reſtoration of the better part would leave us immediate gainers; and by a peace on theſe terms we ſhould profit by the afflictions of our neighbours, and ceaſe committing further aggreſſion on ourſelves or them. In his opinion it was a "*war-whoop*," which let reconciliation at defiance, and pledged the people of Great Britain to the maintenance of an annihilating ſyſtem of deſtruction. With what other view could he ever conſider the imperative mandate that enjoined a people to have a King, who had ſolemnly proteſted againſt every ſemblance of monarchy, ſave that which was veſted in themſelves, and could not be alienated (a cry of hear, hear!). "Hear me," ſaid his Lordſhip, "I hope the world will hear me." He then deſired to know what argument they would uſe againſt making a peace even with any temporary rulers that might govern France, when, to uſe their logic, "*thoſe Governors might be changed every year.*" For it they were to be "changed every year," ſhould it follow, that, to uſe the *ſage Conſul's* obſervation, "*is the war to be eternal?*" His Grace contended, in the ſtrongeſt language, that the war might now be ended, and no more difference could ariſe between treating for a peace with Buonaparte than with Capet. His Grace then ended with moving an amendment to the addreſs, which was merely an echo of his own ſentiments, and very diffuſe.

Lord Harrington ſaid, that the ſecurity of the country by a permanency of peace, ought to be the grand and leading conſideration of Miniſters in every ſtep they took. He thought that a negociation with France, at the preſent moment, was not at all adviſeable, owing to the recency of its Government. By a negociation he thought, at the preſent time, a damp would be thrown on the ſpirit of the country, and would remove us from that proud and firm pre-eminence on which we at preſent ſtand, and reduce us to the very depth of degradation. On ſuch grounds as theſe, he was an enemy to the preſent negociation.

Lord Romney ſaid, I own that the country at large are under very deep obligations to his Majeſty's Miniſters, and I, as an individual, will give them full credit for their manly and perſevering conduct. But, on the preſent occaſion, I do not think their arguments ſtand on the beſt ground. When the Noble Secretary inſinuated that the hour of danger was the time when Engliſhmen were remiſs, his memory certainly failed him; for there were many memorable inſtances to the contrary on record: And were we in thoſe ſituations again, their conduct would ſtill be equally patriotic. But our ſituation is now materially altered from thoſe circumſtances which dictated the peace at Campo Formio. The language of Buonaparte is altered too. England is no longer to be deſtroyed. He ſeems totally changed in all his profeſſions, and from what but theſe can we deviſe his ſentiments? But while I would recommend ſome attention to be paid to the profeſſions of Buonaparte, I would act as we did while the treaty at Liſle was pending, *with all the rigour of hoſtility.*

Lord Carliſle objected to the obſervations of the Noble Duke who had ſpoken in the debate, concerning the perpetuity of the war, which he had ſaid would be eternal, if we continued to act on our preſent principles. He contended that the preſent diſcuſſion was a very improper one for Parliament to enter upon, as it was an interference with the prerogative of the Crown, which was competent to all treaties.

Lord Holland obſerved, that the animoſity of the French Republic had often been alleged as throwing obſtacles in the way of peace, and rendering negociation fruitleſs: this diſpoſition, he was happy to ſay, ſeemed now removed ſo far as profeſſions went. This coun-

try

try has approved always of every pacific overture on the side of his Majesty. At the time when the greatest animosity existed, negotiations were carried on both at Paris and Lisle. What objection could there be now to adopt the same plan? Why refuse the first offer of the French Republic to that effect? Numerous objections, he said, were brought forward, but they all appeared to him futile in the extreme. Negociation did not, he thought, at all sanction the means by which a government was acquired. The recency of the present stood among the obstacles of negociation. The sincerity of this objection he could not but suspect, when he recollected, that on a former occasion, we had treated with a French Government, which had existed only six weeks, and the present one had nearly survived that time. The Noble Secretary has said, that the French had broken all their treaties with every nation with whom they had had concern—in one instance, however, he was rather unfortunate; for with Prussia, France had remained in perfect amity. The Noble Secretary had mentioned, as an objection, the insincerity of the French; but how, he would ask, could insincerity be proved without a trial? That the French will not acknowledge themselves the aggressors in the war we hear numbered among the present objections also to negociation. It might be asked, Why was not this thought of at the negociations of Paris and Lisle? If this acknowledgment was thought no objection then, it cannot surely stand for one now. Facts and experience are also necessary, it seems, to be collected for some indefinite time, before there can be any safe ground for negociation: But on a former occasion they were collected in six weeks, and why not now? The Noble Secretary had condemned in the most unqualified manner the character of Buonaparte, and had gone both to Italy and Egypt to find grounds to substantiate his charges; yet all his arguments were not convincing—and if they were, was it wise in him to make use of them? His Lordship said it was insulting France to assert, in the answer of her Ministers, that all the miseries were the effects of that revolution for which the great majority of the nation devoted themselves.

Lord Caernarvon considered the character of Buonaparte to be every whit as bad as it had been represented; but, at the same time, that was not a sufficient cause to preclude all kind of negociation with him at any future period. There had been persons in power whose characters were as remarkable for treachery as his, and it had been found expedient to negociate with them. He did not consider the answers lately made to the overtures from France as precluding a negociation at any period hereafter. And with respect to the amendment moved by the Noble Lord, he thought it would be better to omit it.

The Earl of Liverpool said, that the consequence of an armistice with France, during a negociation, would be, that she would have every thing to gain, and this country ever thing to lose; her ports would be opened, and her merchantmen, which were converted into pilfering privateers, would resume their former occupations.

Lord Grantley said a few words in explanation of the meaning of the French Republic, by their resolution of November 19. 1792, viz. that they only meant by it to endeavour to overthrow the Governments of those countries that were at war with them.

Their Lordships then divided on the amendment proposed by the Duke of Bedford,

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The original motion was then put and carried.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Continued from p. 54.

Jan. 22. *Mr Long* expressed his regret at having to acquaint the House that his Right Hon. Friend (Mr Pitt) was too much indisposed to attend this day, and therefore moved that the message be taken into consideration on Wednesday next; which was agreed to.

28. *Lord Sheffield* moved, that there be laid before the House an account of the quantity of wheat, flour, barley, and rye, imported into this kingdom from the year 1794, up to the latest periods when the same could be made out.—Ordered.

Meſſage from his Majeſty relative to the Correſpondence with Buonaparte.

As we have given a pretty full ſtatement of the chief arguments uſed in the Houſe of Lords on this important communication, we ſhall endeavour to give as few repetitions in our account of what paſſed in the other Houſe as poſſible; but the topics diſcuſſed are ſo intereſting, that a conſiderable portion of this number ſhall be allotted to them.

Feb. 3. *Mr Dundas* opened the debate by ſaying, "I now riſe, to move an addreſs to his Majeſty to thank him for the communication contained in the meſſage we have juſt heard read. Sir, I apprehend, and hope, that in diſcuſſing the queſtion now ſubmitted to the conſideration of the Houſe, there will be no occaſion for me to enter at length into the detail of all the hideous features which have, from its very origin, attended the French revolution. It will be ſufficient for me to call the attention and recollection of the Houſe to ſome of the prominent principles which diſtinguiſhed it in the outſet, and which have ſince invariably accompanied its progreſs. I will, Sir, firſt of all, mention that odious and abominable decree of the 19th November 1792, which decree has been uniformly followed up by every ſucceeding Government in France, by a uniformity of conduct pregnant with aggreſſion, an utter diſregard of all treaties, and a moſt ſovereign contempt for the uſages and cuſtoms of all other nations. Since the paſſing of that decree, Sir, the French people and its Government have been continually at war with almoſt every nation in Europe; and as to thoſe who have not actually been engaged, it has been with the greateſt difficulty they have been able to keep out of it. I will beg leave, Sir, to enumerate thoſe with whom the French Government have been actually engaged, beginning with Auſtria, the Empire, Pruſſia, Spain, Great Britain, Genoa, Modena, Sardinia, Venice, Rome, Naples, Tuſcany, Ruſſia, and the Porte. The kingdoms of Denmark and Sweden, though never directly engaged in the war, had nevertheleſs, as neutral powers, received ſo many flagrant and violent aggreſſions and acts of oppreſſion, in the courſe of the war, that they had very recently been under the neceſſity of withdrawing their reſpective Ambaſſadors from Paris, and might now be ſaid to be the next door to a ſtate of hoſtility with them. It would appear to me, Sir, extremely ſtrange that all this ſhould be the work of chance. It would ſeem ſtrange to me that any man could be ſo blind as not to perceive, that it was in fact attributed ſolely to the nature and genius of the revolution, which was formed of thoſe abominable, diſorganizing, and Jacobinical principles, which ſtruck directly at the root of every regular government, and threatened deſtruction to all ſocial and civilized order. Sir, it is only neceſſary for me to advert to their own proceedings ſince the preſent Government was eſtabliſhed, to ſhow you the ſituation in which they conceive themſelves to have been from the commencement of the revolution. They acknowledged, Sir, that till the 4th of November laſt no preceding Government had ever had power to make peace with any degree of ſecurity to other nations. This, Sir, is not my report of them, it is their own—it is the report of the very man who veſted the power of Government in the hands of the very perſon with whom it now remains. It may, perhaps, in one reſpect, be ſaid to be ſo. The preſent Government is certainly very different from all which preceded it, ſo far as relates to the Executive part—but the Municipalities, and all the ſubordinate offices of the Republic, are on the ſame footing as in the time of Robeſpierre—and, from them, the ſame ſeditious, turbulent, and Jacobinical doctrines may again burſt forth. The only ſingle difference which now exiſts is, that all the tyranny is concentered in Buonaparte himſelf. But, Sir, let me aſk the Gentlemen the queſtion, and let me beg the Houſe ſeriouſly to conſider if we may believe their own words, that there was no ſecurity for any nation making peace with them previous to the month of November laſt, what more ſecurity can there be in the preſent caſe than in any of the others? And if, Sir, we cannot believe there is any ſincerity in the deſire of negociation, nor any ſecurity ſhould a peace be concluded, I would with the Houſe ſeriouſly and deliberately

ly to conſider whether it would be conſiſtent to throw ourſelves into the arms of the recent uſurper? Gentlemen, Sir, have frequently ſtated opinions, and aſked the queſtion; what are the grounds on which to form a judgment of the ſincerity of a treaty? I will anſwer them moſt conciſely. I think, Sir, ſuch a judgment may be very fairly formed from a conſideration of the nature of the Sovereigns—from the form of a Government—from its antiquity and ſtability—from the Miniſters who adminiſter it—from its relative intereſts with regard to other powers. Theſe, and many other ſtriking circumſtances, attending all regular and eſtabliſhed governments, form ſo many criterions on which a judgment might be founded with the greateſt preciſion. But I will aſk, Sir, is there one of theſe criterions to be found in the preſent inſtance? Not one: Every thing reſts upon the ſingle aſſertion of Buonaparte himſelf, that he is of a pacific diſpoſition—accompanied, I muſt confeſs, with M. Talleyrand's certificate. Perhaps, Sir, I may be found fault with for bringing forward the perſonal character of Buonaparte. It is not my intention to rail at or revile Buonaparte; certainly, if he had not blaſphemed his Maker, and uſurped the government of his country, he might have ſtood fairer in my eſtimation: But, Sir, in the inveſtigation of his character, in the preſent inſtance, I ſhall confine myſelf to that part of it relative to pacification. I ſhall enumerate to the Houſe the ſeveral treaties he has entered into with different powers; the faith with which he has kept the ſeveral alliances he has entered into; and from theſe Gentlemen will be enabled to draw the concluſion, whether it would not, at the preſent period, be highly inconſiſtent for his Majeſty's Miniſters to enter into negociation with him? Sir, I beg leave to recur to his conduct with Tuſcany, Sardinia, Naples, Malta, Venice, Egypt—with every one of which he broke the treaties he made with them. He entered into the Venetian territories as a profeſſed friend, under the moſt ſolemn aſſurances that he came to deliver them from the yoke of Auſtria—but no ſooner was he once fairly in poſſeſſion of Venice than he overturned the ancient government, and afterwards gave them up to that very power from whoſe tyranny he pretended he came to deliver them. But the moſt attrocious of all was his conduct to the Ciſalpine Republic. After overturning an ancient government in that country alſo, and modelling a conſtitution exactly after his own taſte and fancy, this very Republic was puniſhed in a moſt exemplary and extraordinary manner, only for exerciſing an independent right veſted in it by that very conſtitution itſelf. I ſhall in the next place, Sir, follow him to Malta, which iſland he attacked without the ſmalleſt provocation on the part of thoſe who governed it, and after leaving a ſtrong garriſon in the fortreſs, he bent his courſe for Egypt, where he ſeemed to improve on all he had done before. He writes to the Grand Vizier, proteſting that he never had any inimical deſign againſt Egypt, but came merely to puniſh the refractory Beys and the Mamelukes: That he had no wiſh or intention of injuring the Porte, and to evince this he was ready and willing to withdraw his army from Egypt. But what, Sir, in this laſt act did he write to General Kleber whom he left to command the army after he quitted it? Why, Sir, he deſired that reſpectable General to enter into a negociation with the Grand Vizier, but by all poſſible means to prevent the army from quitting Egypt till a general peace ſhould be concluded, with a view, no doubt, that when ſuch an event ſhould take place, he would endeavour to ſend out freſh ſuccours and ſupplies, and to retain that country which he had been ſo long pretending to evacuate. In this curſory view of the conduct of Buonaparte, I have been talking of him as a warrior and negociator; and from the ſeveral facts, and the conſequences reſulting from them, which I have ſtated, relative to his conduct, I do not heſitate to declare it appears to me, and I think it muſt be clear to every impartial man, that a total diſregard to all treaties is the leading feature of his character. If I am right, Sir, in ſtating theſe points, let me aſk the Houſe what ſecurity we have to treat? Sir, the preſent deſire of Buonaparte to enter into negociation for peace, appears to me to operate as a double edged conſideration. He may be deſirous

ſtrous for negociation, not only for the purpoſe of raiſing diſtruſt and jealouſies in the breaſts of our allies, and thereby weakening and enfeebling our mutual efforts; but to gain time at the preſent moment in order to recruit and retrieve the exhauſted finances and reſources of France. Pending a negociation and armiſtice, the ports of France would be open for the obtaining ſupplies of every kind of warlike ſtores; and we are to reach forth our relieving hand to conſolidate the power of Buonaparte—this indeed would not be an innocent experiment. In anſwer to another obſervation which I have heard ſtarted—In caſe he ſhould prove ſincere, are you in a worſe ſituation than you would be with the Princes of the Houſe of Bourbon? To this, Sir, I will decidedly anſwer yes, we are in a much worſe ſituation. The Princes of the Houſe of Bourbon would declare war againſt you, and ſend out their fleets and armies againſt you, but then it was always for ſome end and purpoſe which was avowed and definable. They did not pretend to change and overturn the baſis of the governments with whom they went to war. On the contrary the French revolution has done this. There is at this moment a government in France founded on a principle which can give no ſecurity. A pure, unadulterated Jacobin government. We, Sir, have agreed on this ſubject—we are firmly fixed in the opinion that the beſt form of government will be the ancient one, conſidered both as to the proſperity of France, and the repoſe and happineſs of all Europe; but we do not, nor ever have maintained, that it is the only one. All that we want is a government of ſtability, that may be able to give ſecurity for maintaining the relations of peace and amity. I now come, Sir, to the treaty of Campo Formio, which was made by this very Buonaparte himſelf, and afterwards broken, like all the reſt. In the courſe of ſeven years we have twice opened a negociation with France—once at Paris, and again at Liſle. Yet, Sir, notwithſtanding this, his Majeſty's Miniſters felt no inconſiderable alarm, being aware of the danger of a ſucceſsful blow to the treaty. There were many collateral circumſtances which led to the adoption of this meaſure; but the principal reaſon was, that the great body of the people of this country had ſuffered themſelves to be perſuaded, that the reſources of the country were exhauſted, and that the country, from particular events which took place, was ſo critically ſituated, that they expreſſed an almoſt univerſal wiſh for peace, which his Majeſty's Miniſters did not think proper to withſtand, and therefore the negociation was ſet on foot. At Paris very conſiderable conceſſions were made, and at Liſle ſtill greater: but ſtill this was not ſufficient to ſatisfy and appeaſe the implacable ſpirit of hoſtility which France then breathed againſt this country. But ſuppoſe for a moment, Sir, that peace had at that time taken place, can there be a perſon, either within or without theſe walls, who thinks that we ſhould not have been at war again before this time? Is there any one who can be ſo blind as not to ſuppoſe, that the correſpondence with Iriſh traitors would not have been carried on with as much or greater zeal and activity than it has already been? The matter, Sir, I think will not admit of a doubt. But even ſuppoſe that out of date, the expedition to Egypt would have cauſed a war. I am ſorry, Sir, to have treſpaſſed ſo long on the patience of the Houſe; but there is one topic more to which I beg leave to crave their attention. Suppoſe at the preſent moment a treaty of peace was to be ſigned, would you with his Majeſty to diſband his troops or diſmantle his fleets? Pruſſia has at this inſtant a very large army in the field too, for the purpoſe of protecting a line of demarcation: We have alſo a line of demarcation to protect. The ſame force we have now on foot would be equally neceſſary in the midſt of peace. You muſt be equally guarded at all points, both for the protection of poſſeſſions at home and abroad. We ſhould otherwiſe be leaving France at liberty to act againſt all Europe, and againſt ſome powers in it which are, and ought to be, moſt near and dear to us, whilſt our hands would be tied up. Under theſe circumſtances I cannot, either as one of his Majeſty's Miniſters, or as a Member of Parliament, give my voice for negociation. I ſhall therefore beg leave to move the following addreſs to his Majeſty." The ad-

dreſs was then read, and was to the ſame purport as that moved in the Houſe of Lords.

Mr Whitbread roſe to expreſs his decided diſapprobation of the propoſed addreſs. With reſpect to the conduct of France to other nations—Had one of his Majeſty's Miniſters a right to complain of this? Did he forget our conduct to the King of Pruſſia? Did he not remember Lord Hervey's conduct to the Grand Duke of Tuſcany? Had he forgotten Mr Drake's meſſage to the Senate of Geneva? Did he remember our conduct to Genoa, which was threatened to be bombarded unleſs it took part with the allies? it was ſaid that Jacobin principles precluded any poſſibility of negociation. Admitting all that was ſaid reſpecting Buonaparte's inſincerity to be true, might it not be paralleled with the conduct of any of our allies? The King of Pruſſia, in violation of treaties, had broken into Sileſia—Pruſſia, Ruſſia, and Auſtria had, in violation of treaty, diſmembered Poland, yet, with theſe allies at his back, the Hon. Gentleman refuſed to treat with Buonaparte, becauſe he was a violator of treaties. If Buonaparte, in Italy, had murdered his thouſands, Suwarrow, in Poland, had murdered his ten thouſands. Mr Whitbread then adverted to the requiring the reſtoration of the French line of Princes, as a pledge of ſecurity, and aſked, whether that or the reſtoration of the Pope was an object of intereſt to this country? He alluded to the diſcordant views of the allied powers, and concluded with expreſſing his opinion, that we ſhould be always glad to negociate with power, wherever it might reſide, and on the preſent occaſion, we had the wiſe conduct of America before our eyes, which he thought worthy of imitation.

Mr Canning went at large into the preſent ſtate of France, which he conſidered as exiſting under a deſpotiſm more abſolute than that, to deſtroy which had been the avowed object of the revolution. He obſerved, that thoſe who were ſo loud in the execration of the ambition and treachery of the allies, were blind to all the dangers reſulting from the power of an uſurper. The preſent Government of France had been repreſented as mild, moderate, and rational. To him it ſeemed, that, as Macbeth owed his Crown to "fate and metaphyſical aid," ſo it was to the metaphyſical machinations of the *weird Abbe Sieyes* that Buonaparte owed his ſceptre: And it would require ſomething more than ſpeculation and fanciful theories to enable him to preſerve his ſituation. But let the uſurper be what he would, Mr Canning ſaid he would not take thoſe liberties with him and his character which Gentlemen on the other ſide thought fit to do with the powers in alliance with this country. On the whole, he thought we were called upon to compare the preſent ſtate of affairs with former events, and in ſo doing he confeſſed that he conſidered that the meaſure of entering into overtures for peace would be more unſafe at the preſent than at any former period whatever.

Mr Erſkine began by ſtating the queſtion. The Houſe was not called upon to approve a treaty, but to conſider the propriety of rejecting overtures of peace; and this, after eight years of war, to deſtroy the principles of the French revolution, which it was now ſaid had remained invariable. If it were true that theſe principles were unaltered, after the efforts to deſtroy them, there remained but little chance of now putting them down; we ſhould aſk (as Mr Burke did in the American war,) what we ſhall do with them? He complained that Miniſters had always put the reaſons of their indiſpoſition towards peace on grounds too general; and that ſuch generalities and ſuch anſwers, as that now under conſideration, had produced all the calamities of the war. If negociation had taken place, at the time of the death of the King of France (an event which all muſt deplore,) hoſtilities might have been averted; but, ever ſince that period, Miniſters had not, he believed, been ſincerely deſirous of peace. The preſent Government was leſs dangerous in reſpect to revolutionary principles, than thoſe which had preceded it, and much leſs objectionable in regard to negociation than others with which his Majeſty had profeſſed a readineſs to treat. He here contraſted the pacific language of Miniſters at that period with their warlike language at this; pacific language then held, when the Government of

France

France was not a month old. At that time the internal ſituation of this country was much leſs favourable to peace, according to the repreſentations of Miniſters, than it was at the preſent moment. Then we were told ſedition and ſeditious ſocieties exiſted to a conſiderable extent; now no apprehenſions of ſuch dangers were entertained; and peace was therefore more deſirable now, in reſpect to our internal ſtate, than in 1795, when wiſhes for it were profeſſed. Miniſters, if they did not chuſe to treat ſingly, might have referred the queſtion to their allies, rather than have ſent ſo haughty an anſwer. He thought the French Government would be permanent; and if it were ſo, uniting all claſſes under it, and powerful hereafter, Britain would be unable to make ſuch good terms of peace as at preſent. He did not ſuppoſe Buonaparte offered peace out of love to Britain, but to ſerve himſelf. Mr Erſkine next ſhewed the impoſſibility of reſtoring the Bourbon family; as they muſt not only be reſtored, but the ancient Nobility, who would diſpoſſeſs all the landed proprietors; and he nor no man would be a friend to a revolution that would take away their properties. He concluded by ſaying he ſhould move no amendment, as he could not tell ſo well what it was proper to do, as what was improper to be done.

Mr Pitt commenced his ſpeech by obſerving, that the queſtion before the Houſe appeared to him to be this, whether the inevitable deſtinies of the world were ſuch as obviated the poſſibility of their being controuled by any human exertions; and whether, impreſſed with that idea, the people and Government of this country were patiently to reſign themſelves to a paſſive endurance of a ſyſtem founded on principles, the impiety of which was admitted by the Hon. Gentleman who had juſt addreſſed the Houſe, and he truſted by every one elſe who heard him? It was, he conceived, impoſſible to ſeparate the queſtion now before the Houſe from the antecedent cauſes of the French Revolution; yet the Hon. Gentleman had omitted altogether referring in the leaſt reſpect to thoſe cauſes. It was neceſſary to conſider, whether in negociating with the enemy, we had a fair proſpect of an adequate ſecurity for the obſervance of the terms of the negociation? When he heard the Hon. Gentleman again giving the Houſe thoſe arguments he had ſo often urged, and advancing upon the authority of his own writings that the origin of the war was to be imputed to the diminiſſal of M. Chauveline, he was tempted to make a ſhort reply. (Here Mr Pitt took a curſory view of the various acts of aggreſſion on the part of France previous to the declaration of war.) If England had erred, ſaid he, it had been from too fond adherence to a ſyſtem diametrically oppoſite to that which France had purſued; and he would venture to ſtate, that prior to the diſmiſſion of Chauveline, no provocation had been given at all by this Government, tho' it would have been amply juſtified by the decrees of the French Convention. England would have been juſtified in declaring war when ſhe ſaw France not only directing hoſtile meaſures againſt her immediate intereſts, but involving the Empetor, her ally. Had the Engliſh Government ſought to make the war unavoidable? On the contrary, he had documents to prove its conduct had been altogether neutral; but with this condition, that France was not to attack it through the medium of its allies. It was not till after the battle of Jemappe, when our allies had been attacked, and the decree of fraternity had paſſed, that war was entered into by this country. He next referred to the diſpatch of the 29th day of December 1792, from Lord Grenville to our Miniſter at Ruſſia, deſiring, on the part of Ruſſia, to have an explanation on the ſubject of the war with France; the two leading points wiſhed to be communicated were, *Firſt*, the plan of conduct previous to the commencement of hoſtilities; and whether it would not be poſſible to avert the threatened calamities? *Secondly*, whether, if that could not be effected, the forces of the allied powers were ſufficient to carry on the war with hopes of ſucceſs? The project of this country intended to avert the war with France, was comprifed in the following terms of peace; namely, the withdrawing of their armies, reſtoring the conqueſts they had made, we giving an unequivocal proof of our intention

not

not to foment any troubles in France, or to interfere in their political affairs, but to preſerve the relations of peace and amity. With regard to the ſecond point, it was not neceſſary to enlarge upon it. He would ſay no more as to the origin of the war. He contended, that the ſyſtem of French republicaniſm would never be deſtroyed until the principles on which it was founded were extinguiſhed, or its ſtrength exhauſted. It was impoſſible to take up a map, and lay your hands on any one country in which France had not committed ſome devaſtation, infringed ſome treaty, or violated ſome law of nations. He proceeded to ſtate the relative ſituation of France and the allied powers, at the time of the commencement of hoſtilities, and referred the motive for the arbitrary ſeizures of the French, not to the miſconduct of the powers whoſe territories they invaded, but to the ingenious diſcovery that the Rhine and the Alps were the natural boundaries of France. He alluded to the former negociations for peace, contending that they did not manifeſt the leaſt ſpirit, on the part of this country, for diſmembering France. England was miſtreſs of the ſeas, had collected the wealth of the world, had annihilated the commerce of France, and had doubled her own; yet, preeminent as was her ſituation, ſhe aimed not at the partition of the ancient territory of France, but offered to return a part of thoſe conqueſts, every one of which ſhe had certainly a right to retain. The negociations were broken off by France new-moulding her code of laws, and pretending that what ſhe had once annexed to her territory could never afterwards be ſurrendered. He referred to the laſt overtures for peace made by this country, by which we freely offered all we had, requiring only from France a part of that we had conquered from Holland. But it was in vain theſe terms were offered; having ſpurned the offers of England, and being relieved from the war with Auſtria, ſhe attacked Switzerland, where that dreadful ſcene of carnage and horror took place which fully unmaſked the conduct of the French to thoſe who were previouſly blind to their deformity. Military laws were applied to ſubject a people proverbial for the innocence of their lives, and the inhabitants of a ſpot which had been conſidered an aſylum for peaceful freedom. The nature of the French ſyſtem was nothing but an inſatiable love of aggrandizement: That was its governing principle. It was the ſoul that animated it at its birth, and certainly would not deſert it till its extinction: It had been invariably the ſame at every ſtage of the revolution: It equally belonged to Briſſot, Robeſpierre, Reubell, and Barras; but it belonged more than all to Buonaparte, in whom were united all their powers and all their crimes. He deſcribed France, in her preſent ſituation, as bleeding at every pore, and by her miſeries aſking pardon of God and man for her enormities. With no means of enjoyment herſelf, ſhe yet poſſeſſed gigantic powers to annoy and harraſs her neighbours; the French republic marched forth, the terror and diſmay of the world, and made every nation the theatre of her crimes. But he truſted, while the people of this country could weild a ſword, or procure the ſinews of war, they would not ceaſe to oppoſe them. There has been a change indeed of late, but a change in the exterior forms rather than in reality and principle. The new Government has erected itſelf on the ſame contempt of public opinion as the former Governments. Like the former, it is a military deſpotiſm, and differs chiefly in being more naked and undiſguiſed; its enſign of power is the ſword, and not the ſceptre. But this deſpotiſm, which in the former Government had been ſhared among a few, is now concentered and united in one. This one man invites us to negociate for peace with him, and adduces his own character as an inducement. We will ſuppoſe for a moment that this man were a ſtranger to us: He invites us to negociation, and he offers his own character as the pledge; and he acts conſiſtently in this offer: For he is the ſole governor of France, and on his character all depends. Before then we ſuſpend our efforts; before we lay down thoſe arms which have given us ſecurity, we may be allowed to aſk, who this ſtranger is? But this man is no ſtranger to us: We know him; and what do we know of him? He tells us of

his well known pacific diſpoſitions; and theſe propoſals are, it ſeems, the ſecond attempt on his part towards a general pacification. Theſe pacific diſpoſitions, and this good will, we may aptly illuſtrate by two anecdotes. In the flush of victory when he had even now terminated the war with Auſtria, he addreſſed his ſoldiers as the future army of England, and proclaimed to them, that yet more glorious laurels were reſerved for them: They were to pluck them on the banks of the Thames. At the ſame time he diſpatched Monge and Berthier, his friends and confidents, to the Directory; and theſe, in the perſon of their Commander, addreſſed the Directory, "Citizens, we have humbled Auſtria: Britain remains. France and Britain are incompatible! Now then for Britain!" Such were his diſpoſitions as a pacificator; what do we know of his fidelity to his country? The conſtitution of the third year he preſented to his fellow-citizens on the point of the bayonet, and took the oaths to it afterwards! On another occaſion, in a ſpeech to his ſoldiers, he exhorted them to ſwear fidelity to it by their banners conſecrated by victories, and by the graves of the patriots who had died by their ſides! Again, on his return from Egypt, he renewed his oaths to this conſtitution on the morning of that day in which he deſtroyed it! Theſe are ſpecimens of his fidelity to his own proper country: His fidelity to other powers, his fidelity as a pacificator, remains to be exemplified. All the treaties which France has made ſince the revolution have been all broken; and the name of Buonaparte is attached to far more of theſe treaties than the names of all the other Generals. His was the treaty with Sardinia; his the treaty with Genoa, which he followed by ſucceſſive [illegible] exactions; his the treaty with Naples, which led the way to a contribution of ſeven mill. Sterling; and after this to a military execution; his was the treaty at Mantua, to which [illegible] fatal ſignal of aggreſſion, [illegible] extended contributions, [illegible] new [illegible] on the perſonal wealth of [illegible] Duke, and concluded by new [illegible] of Rome was the treaty with [illegible] a treaty ſolemnly ſworn and [illegible] by [illegible] of fraud, perfidy, and inhumanity! His, finally, was the treaty with Venice, which he purported to have delivered from Auſtria, which he revolutioniſed, defrauded, ranſacked, and then transferred it, as a thing of barter, to that very Auſtria from whom he had made it his boaſt to have delivered it.—Theſe exploits and proofs of his fidelity as a pacificator were followed by his expedition to Egypt, of which expedition he was at once the planner, the executor, and the deſerter; and from which he has ſkulked away, in order to play a new part, to reſt the pretenſions to a negociation on the merits of his own character, and to addreſs the Kings of Europe in the high tone of official equality! But it has been ſaid that Buonaparte has an intereſt in *their* negociations, which enſures his fidelity. What intereſt? Not in peace; at leaſt, not in the preſervation of peace. He has doubtleſs an intereſt in drawing England away from her allies, in palſying Ruſſia, in amuſing all, if ſo he may recruit the revolutionary energies of France: he has preciſely that intereſt, which it is both our intereſt and our moſt awful duty to oppoſe and prevent. War is the only poſſible means of his permanence; his hold upon France is upon the ſword. He is connected neither with the ſoil of France, nor the hearts of Frenchmen. A foreigner, a fugitive, and an uſurper, alike deteſted by the Republicans and the Royaliſts; he appeals to his fortune, that is, to his ſoldiers and his ſword. He cannot afford to let his military fame die away; with no end but ambition, no paſſion but a criminal glory, he muſt groan to regain his laurels which our gallant countrymen had plucked from his brow before the walls of Acre; and probably a treaty is deſirable to him, as furniſhing an opportunity of landing an army in Ireland, and there to keep the treaty with his wonted good-faith at the head of an army. I have ever underſtood, that of all Governments, a military deſpotiſm was in its nature the leaſt ſtable. No Government can long ſtand that is not built on the public opinion. The follies and enormities of the French revolution have fixed and made firm, on this public opinion, all the other Governments of Europe. Men have [illegible]

been taught to feel bleſſings, and perceive advantages, by the fearful contraſt. The new conſtitution is ſtamped with every character of inſtability.

What then is the inference I draw? In no caſe to treat with Buonaparte: By no means. The concerns of nations, and above all, thoſe of peace and war, are not to be teaſoned upon by extremes. But where all preſumption is againſt a man, we ought to wait for new evidence in his favour: Where all the facts hitherto tend to ſuſpicion or grievance, we are entitled, we are compelled, to demand the evidence of new facts, and not to relax in our exertions till they have been afforded to us. There are few facts, I acknowledge, that would be of ſufficient importance to weigh againſt our former experience; but every thing depends on degree and comparition. If different maxims be aſſumed and acted upon in France; if the effects of the arms of the allies ſhould delude our preſent well-grounded expectations; if the hopes of ſubſtituting the ancient government ſhould become leſs; in ſhort, if the riſk decreaſe, and the ſucceſs diminiſh; then I promiſe for myſelf and my colleagues, that we ſhall not remain uninfluenced, and ſhall regulate our advice to our Sovereign accordingly. It has been ſaid, what hope can you entertain that monarchy can be forced on the French nation! I never thought that it could be *forced* on France; I never wiſhed it; I never hoped it! But I do hope, that by the efforts of the combined armies, the preſſure of the military may be ſo far removed or lightened, as to allow the nation a vent for their real wiſhes. The experiment ought to be made, whether or no France really prefers to the ancient line of Princes an anamolous government, of which my Honourable Friend has juſtly obſerved, that it has all of monarchy, but its legitimacy, ſtability, and limitation. The weſtern provinces have decided, and I ſolemnly aſſure the Houſe, wholly without the inſtigation of this country. Therefore, as a lover of peace, I preſs forward to a ſyſtem which ſecures to us a real and ſolid peace—As a lover of peace, I will not ſacrifice the hopes of that ſolid peace to vain attempts at a peace which would be more dangerous than war. We treated before, becauſe the old and eſtabliſhed modes of finance in this country were no longer competent to ſtruggle with the convulſive graſp of revolutionary revenue. It was neceſſary, therefore, that an appeal ſhould be made to the people, and in order to this appeal, it was important that the people ſhould receive an abſolute proof of the neceſſity of the war. Were we then inſincere? No; in the then exiſting circumſtances, a peace, though dangerous, appeared leſs dangerous than a war carried on by the regular means. We therefore wiſhed a peace, or a war, the neceſſity of which had been rendered plain and palpable to the people at home. If we had ſucceeded in the treaty, we ſhould have choſen the leaſt of two evils: and I did therefore think a negociation preferable to a war conducted, as, without the negociation, it muſt have been conducted. Even if peace had been made, it could not have been durable. By what proceſs of argument then can our negociations at that time be adduced in favour of acceding to negociations at preſent, now that all the former inducements have been removed, and all the former dangers remain? We are now more likely to gain by war than peace, and every month of war, by exhauſting the reſources of the Republic, draws us nearer to that ſolid and durable peace! that peace of ſafety, confidence, and friendſhip, which alone deſerves the efforts of the wiſe, or the wiſhes of the good!

Mr Fox obſerved, that his Hon. Friend had ſtated, that the preſent was a new æra in the war. This the Right Hon. Gentleman had not admitted in words, but he had in fact done ſo by his recurrence to the firſt principles of the war. Thus, at the end of ſeven years of a war, which had by his Majeſty, in his ſpeeches, been repeatedly called a moſt burdenſome war, a new æra was propoſed to the Houſe, and this upon calculations of the Right Hon. Gentleman, made on the ſubject of the French finances; after having deſcribed France five years ago in the jaws and in the gulph of bankruptcy, we were now called upon to make war upon ſuch principles that not ſeven or fourteen years would bring it to a termination. He was of

opinion, that in the prefent war this country had been the aggreſſor; and with reſpect to Auſtria and Pruſſia, no man could doubt it; all the publications which he had read proved this; concerts of different kinds had been entered into, to diſmember France.—No, he did not aſſert this; but he referred to the card de Molieville, and aſſerted, there ſeen that the intention was to interfere in the affairs of that country with large armies. What was the declaration at Pilnitz? "That Pruſſia and Auſtria would not interfere unleſs other powers joined them." He would bring home this caſe to Great Britain, and would aſk what would be the feelings of Engliſhmen in ſuch a ſituation; and diſpoſed as they might be to peace, would there be any one who would not take up arms on ſuch an occaſion? The caſe was, however, very different with reſpect to Great Britain. Of all the facts which the Right Hon. Gentleman had ſtated, but one, that of the 19th November, applied, and that was an act of aggreſſion againſt all States, and not Great Britain in particular. Mr. Chauvelin had given an explanation of this, but the Right Hon. Gentleman contended that this explanation was not ſatisfactory, (Here Mr F. endeavoured to ſhow that the aggreſſion was at firſt on the part of Britain.) Mr Fox ſaid, that however he might accuſe the allies, he was no defender of the external any more than the internal principles of France. The Government of that country, ſince the revolution, had imitated the Houſe of Bourbon, had made treaties, had entered into alliances, and had committed injuſtice upon the Bourbon principles. He ſhould perhaps be told that Louis XIV. was dead long ago, but had the principles of that monarch ceaſed? he complained that they had not, and this was one of his greateſt ſubjects of complaint againſt the new government. It was the principle of Louis XIV. that wherever he conquered, he ſucceeded to all the rights of thoſe whom he ſubdued, and upon this principle he acted. He went to war with Holland, with Spain, and had too much ſucceſs. There was at that time a ſyſtem of juſt policy in this country, for a ſhort period, in the reign of Charles II. and it was generally approved by the country at large. The people of England were clamorous that the French King ſhould return all his conqueſts. What ſaid De Wit, one of the moſt enlightened ſtateſmen of his day: "No, if you had joined before and prevented theſe conqueſts, it would have been very well; but peace muſt now be made as well upon the preſent ſcale as poſſible." What was the policy of this country and Ruſſia with reſpect to France? When France, upon Bourbon-like principles, took poſſeſſion of Savoy, we ſhould have allowed ſome compenſation to that power, and not required the ſurrender without an equivalent. Hume, whoſe fault in his hiſtory is a childiſh affection to Princes, ſpeaking of Louis XIV. confeſſes that that Prince was fortunate in many reſpects, but that he was unfortunate in this—that though he watched every opportunity, he never had but one juſt pretence for warfare; all the reſt were the ſame kind of arguments as the French now uſed---the *convenances morales et phyſiques*. With reſpect to all the pains that the Hon. Gentleman had taken to prove that there was no hoſtility on the part of this Government previous to Auguſt 1792, they were in vain, as he (Mr Fox) aſſerted that there was the utmoſt and moſt decided neutrality on the part of France. When the Conſtitutional King offered to mediate, he ſhould have thought it wiſe to have accepted the offer; but he blamed no one. Men living under Bourbon Princes naturally occaſioned miſtruſt; we ſhould, however, then have declared what we intended to do. He obſerved with reſpect to other countries, the unprincipled cruelty of the French was ſuch as juſtly to diſguſt all Europe. However, in order to fill up the catalogue, there were ſeveral inſtances adduced by Gentlemen on the other ſide, which were not ſtrictly correct; the caſe of Sardinia was held forth as a ſtriking inſtance; of that power, it ſhould be remembered, that at the time it was a belligerent one, in alliance with, receiving a ſubſidy from Great Britain, and bound by treaty not to make peace with France without the conſent of Britain: It was true, that in the conduct of the enemy towards that ſtate, there were many unjuſtifiable acts; no doubt of it. Indeed the conduct of the

belligerent

belligerent powers in the preſent warfare was ſuch as reminded him of conflicts between men who had a variety of offenſive weapons at command, but no defenſive ones; ſo it ſhould now ſeem in the European powers, they all found weapons for annoyance, but none could find a ſhield adequate to their defence. Let thoſe gentlemen who indulged themſelves with declaiming againſt the conduct of the French, view and conſider that of the three nations who partitioned Poland; this cataſtrophe the Hon. Gentleman affected to deplore, perhaps with ſincerity; but look to what has ſince taken place with reſpect to one of thoſe powers in cloſe connection with Great Britain and its leading ally.---Much had been ſaid of the heroiſm and principles of the great Ruſſian leader, his zeal for the ſupport of religion, and the preſervation of good order and regular government, but what was the conduct of this much vaunted warrior? See what his conduct was at Warſaw, when that devoted city was at his mercy---he gave up one of its principal adjuncts, the ſuburb of Praga, to military execution, where men, women, and even children at the breaſt, were given up to an indiſcriminate maſs of ſlaughter; yet ſtill he would not object to peace or alliance with ſuch a country as Ruſſia. The caſe of Switzerland came next under his animadverſions; a country, he ſaid, ſo circumſtanced, that of all others the real lovers of peace and liberty felt a native attachment to, and, as the Hon. Gentleman happily conceived it, a country, by the common conſent of all Europe, left to the enjoyment of peace and tranquillity: But of that country he would aſk who firſt called upon it to abandon its neutrality? His Majeſty's Miniſters! Let the note of a Noble Lord, whom he was proud to own as a near relation (Lord Robert Fitzgerald), then Miniſter with that power, be adverted to: They were called upon to abandon a neutrality which by Miniſters was alleged to be criminal, in ſuch a conjuncture as the preſent; that clearly ſpoke for itſelf. With reſpect to Tuſcany, he obſerved, they were equally reprehenſible, if what was confidently alleged of the conduct of Lord Hervey, our Miniſter at that Court, was true. He certainly was not there to know the fact; but it was aſſerted that his Lordſhip, at an audience in the cloſet of the Grand Duke, laid his watch upon the table, and told his Highneſs, that within a given time he muſt explicitly declare his ſentiments, and ſend away the French Miniſter. It was true that Noble Lord was recalled from Tuſcany; but did Miniſters alter their conduct with reſpect to that Potentate? They did not; and the event was, that the Sovereign of Tuſcany was expelled from his dominions.---The conduct of the French with reſpect to Venice he would not attempt to juſtify; however, they ſtated a moſt horrible outrage upon their troops when they were ſuppoſed to be beaten, as the pretext of their ſubſequent conduct.---Much was ſaid to prove that the French were not lovers of peace; but what was the conduct of Miniſters on that important head? Why, an Hon. Gentleman, that night boaſted they had armed all Europe, with the exception of two powers, againſt her. Did ſuch conduct ſhew a pacific diſpoſition? Our principal, if not the only real ally, was the wiſe, magnanimous, and politic Emperor of Ruſſia. This Prince, in his zeal for religion, though accounted a heretic by the Catholics, had put himſelf at the head of a religious order (the Knights of Malta), and, with reſpect to his political views, he expreſsly declared that he fought for the reſtoration of monarchy in France. If this was his view, it muſt be different from the reſt of the allies, as they avowed no ſuch object. The injuſtice and the enormities of the French, whatever they might be, he inſiſted did not bear to the preſent queſtion. The reſult of that night's diſcuſſion would go to protract or diſcontinue the calamities of war.---The Hon. Gentleman argued the impolicy of negociating with Buonaparte, becauſe of the crimes committed by the French ſince the æra of the revolution, and the probable inſtability of the preſent ſyſtem of government in that country. But he would aſk, Did not Miniſters negociate under ſimilar objections with the French in 1796 and 1797? What greater danger could there be in negociation now than at theſe periods? It might be ſaid, that

in theſe inſtances they made overtures towards peace, not becauſe the meaſure, in their opinions, was politic, but becauſe it pleaſed the people of England, and the reaſon aſſigned for breaking off thoſe negociations was the unwarrantable pretenſions of the enemy, and the monſtrous propoſitions advanced by her; this ſhould have been openly declared at the time, but it was then, and wiſely, held by Miniſters, that Great Britain ſhould negociate again whenever the enemy ſhewed a diſpoſition towards it, and this principle was ſpecifically ſet forth in one of his Majeſty's declarations at that period; but mark the change in the conduct of Miniſters; what was the amount of it on the preſent occaſion but this: "When we are ſucceſsful we will not negotiate, when unſucceſsful we will?" What muſt ſuch a rule of conduct lead to but a *bellum ad internecionem?* Indeed Miniſters, in the two inſtances above alluded to, had clearly laid down a text to prove which of the contending powers were the real friends of peace, namely a willingneſs for diſcuſſion; this was eſtabliſhed by a number of official documents; it was then ſaid we ſhould not leave the enemy a pretence for ſtarting difficulties: thoſe who attempted it were to be held adverſe to peace; but ſee the letter of Lord Grenville to Buonaparte, and that would ſhow which firſt raiſed difficulties. This aſſertion was denied, and the abdication of the Houſe of Bourbon particularly adverted to. To that end he had no objection, provided the people of France wiſhed for it.---He dwelt at ſome length on the idea of reſtoring the Houſe of Bourbon to the throne of France, and argued, that in the way that point was urged in the late communications, it ſhould appear as if it were the object of the war. With reſpect to the arguments advanced that night, what he could collect from them was, that hoſtilities were to be proſecuted until Miniſters ſhould have a better opinion of the French Government; and that no peace ſhould obtain until they evinced that they were peaceably and juſtly inclined. In what a hopeleſs ſtate of war thoſe principles involve this country! The continuance of war was not likely to increaſe the good wiſhes of the countries to each other, it muſt rather have the reverſe effect: The preſent was then the happieſt moment for negociation. If Miniſters waited until the people of France ſhould acquieſce in the uſurpation of Buonaparte, then would he become the more fixed, and conſequently able to dictate his own terms. In the hiſtory of Britain, and other countries, it would be ſeen that uſurpations were quietly acquieſced in by the governed; that of Cromwell, for inſtance, the ſplendour and energy of whoſe character, and its influence upon the nations of Europe, was not an atom greater than that of Buonaparte in the preſent day. The moment of the inſecurity of the preſent ruler of France's power ſhould be ſeized as the moſt favourable for negociation. He thought, in conſiſtency and honour, he was entitled to the ſupport that night of all ſuch members as could not reprobate the conduct of Miniſters, had they acted in the inſtance before them, as they did in 1797, and in that view he was confident of dividing in a large majority. Reſpecting the conduct of Buonaparte, of which ſo much was ſaid, he thought he only uſed theſe means to arrive at the Government of his country, which hiſtory found to be frequent among military men; and with regard to the charge of his violating his oaths to the conſtitution he afterwards deſtroyed, he would only obſerve, that in his opinion it would be better for the intereſts of morality, and not the worſe for mankind in general, if thoſe kind of oaths were exploded, as the leaders of the unhappy affair which loſt the Firſt Charles his Crown, were never conſidered as perjured; nor even thoſe who were afterwards inſtrumental in bringing about the revolution, as the Earl of Devonſhire, and others, on account of any oaths of allegiance they might have taken to the Houſe of Stuart; but what conſtruction in that point of view might be ſet upon the conduct of thoſe who wiſhed to reſtore Monarchy in France, obliging the people to act againſt that ſyſtem they had ſo repeatedly ſworn to maintain. Here he took a review of the various negociations and treaties with France from the period of the Britiſh Revolution down to the peace of 1783, and miſſed that it was full as politic and proper to conclude a

treaty

treaty of peace with that country now as at any former period, and ſignified as little to the people of this country whether the military deſpotiſm veſted in Buonaparte or Berthier, as in either Louis XIV. XV. or XVI. It was the obvious intereſt of Buonaparte to make peace and to keep it. He maintained that peace might be made as ſecurely now as at any period of the old Government; he aſſerted that thoſe who calculated on the deſtruction of the military deſpotiſm of France did not recollect that Auguſtus Cæſar had eſtabliſhed one which laſted 700 years; he conſidered it to be Buonaparte's intereſt to make and preſerve peace; he touched on the revolution in America, and he paid a warm compliment to the memory of General Waſhington. He did not ſee why the conduct of Buonaparte in France ſhould be ſo much condemned. He had reformed her conſtitution, as a military man generally does, by taking all the power into his own hands. He could not ſuppoſe that a military government was wholly deſtitute of freedom: Such a government now prevailed in Ireland, and yet that country was held to be in the moſt happy and ſit ſituation to decide on her moſt important intereſts. He truſted that Miniſters would take ſome pity on the condition of men, and not continue war for a theory. It was ſaid by ſome, that we could afford to pauſe and examine matters for 12 months; but if we were to paſte, would it not be better to paſte in peace. Recurring again to the queſtion more immediately before the Houſe, he diſplayed much ability and ingenuity in arguing the ſuperior policy of negociation at the preſent moment, which would in effect, he ſaid, be putting Buonaparte in a ſtate of probation; and dwelt at ſome length on the calamities and increaſe of burdens, which he aſſerted a continuance of hoſtilities muſt entail upon the nation, and cenſured thoſe who adviſed the late meaſures as the greateſt loſs to the national honour, tranquillity, and repoſe. He ſaid, that by the negociation nothing could be riſked, but much might be gained, and even on the grounds of intereſt themſelves, it would be the beſt policy to conciliate popularity; indeed it was obvious that the wiſhes of the French people were in favour of peace; and in concluding he repeated, that he had a fair right to call upon every member for his vote in the impending diviſion, who would not reprobate the conduct of Miniſters in the preſent inſtance, were it ſimilar to that adopted by them in 1797.

As ſoon as Mr Fox had ſat down, the queſtion was loudly called for; on which the gallery was cleared, and a diviſion took place:

For the Addreſs, 265 } Majority 201
Againſt it, - 64 }

At half paſt three o'clock on Tueſday morning the Houſe adjourned.—On Tueſday the Houſe again met at the uſual hour, but no buſineſs of a public nature was tranſacted.

IRISH PARLIAMENT.

Continued from p. 58.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Union with Great Britain.

Lord Caſtlereagh delivered to the Houſe a meſſage from his Excellency the Lord Lieutenant, acquainting the Houſe, that his Excellency had in command from his Majeſty to lay before them the reſolutions of the Britiſh Parliament, upon the ſubject of a more intimate Union of the two countries, and to expreſs his Majeſty's earneſt recommendation that his faithful Commons would take thoſe reſolutions into their ſerious conſideration, and to communicate the ſatisfaction his Majeſty felt in obſerving that ſentiments in favour of ſuch a meaſure prevailed ſo very generally among his faithful ſubjects of Ireland, and gave full hopes of an early completion of that meaſure, to which his Majeſty looks with the utmoſt earneſtneſs, as the only means by which the intereſts of all his people can be indiſſolubly united; and that his Majeſty therefore, relying upon the wiſdom of his Parliament, and the loyalty of his people, for the completion of ſuch meaſure as ſhall give to both countries a full and unreſtricted participation in their mutual advantages of commerce and conſtitution, doubts not that it will eſtabliſh the freedom and power of the empire on ſuch foundation as will not be ſhaken by either foreign or domeſtic enemies.

The meſſage being read from the Chair,

Lord Caſtlereagh proceeded.—In detailing this important ſubject, he muſt

treſpaſs on the patience of the Houſe. Laſt year it was wiſhed that Parliament ſhould put this great queſtion of Union into a courſe of deliberation and enquiry; the meaſure was not even ſuffered to be laid before them, though it was only deſired that a diſcuſſion of it ſhould take place. This queſtion, as it became more enquired into and better underſtood, became more and more popular with thoſe perſons moſt intereſted in the welfare of the country.—The great body of the landed property of Ireland was friendly to the principle, and the two Houſes of Parliament particularly; 3-4ths of the landed property were amongſt its ſupporters; 19 counties, 5-7ths of Ireland in ſuperficial extent, had come forward in its ſupport. He did not ſay thoſe counties were unanimous in approving the meaſure; complete unanimity was not to be hoped upon any great political queſtion; but he would ſay a very great majority of thoſe counties favoured the meaſure: All the great commercial towns in the kingdom, ſave Dublin and Drogheda, had declared in favour of it; and in ſpeaking of the city of Dublin, he begged to be underſtood as ſpeaking of it with that high reſpect which the zeal and loyalty of its inhabitants, diſplayed in the great and trying circumſtances of the rebellion, commanded; he could not help obſerving that the citizens of Dublin were affected with the ſame alarm that thoſe of the metropolis of Scotland felt on the Scotiſh Union; but he truſted that they would live to change their tone to ſatisfaction, and like the citizen of Edinburgh, have cauſe to be grateful to Providence for the accompliſhment of the Union with Great Britain. His Lordſhip ſaid that he felt no ſurpriſe at obſerving in ſome countries an hoſtile diſpoſition to this meaſure. Every art had been uſed to prejudice the people againſt it; and all kinds of deceptions and practices reſorted to by thoſe who ſolicited petitions againſt the meaſure. As to the petitions procured in this way, his Lordſhip ſaid he was only ſurpriſed they were not more numerous. On the diſcuſſion of the Scotch union, the table of the Parliament was, day after day, for three months covered with ſuch petitions; the Scots Parliament acted, as he truſted the Irish would do; they conſidered only the advantage of the country, and ſteadily purſuing that object, not miſled by artifices, or intimidated by tumults, they received in the gratitude of their country that reward which amply compenſated for the arduous taſk they had accompliſhed. Had Parliament in the laſt ſeſſion entertained the diſcuſſion of this meaſure, it was his Lordſhip's intention to have followed the courſe of proceedings marked upon the Scottiſh union. His Lordſhip then ſaid he would proceed to ſtate the ſubſtance of each of theſe articles. The firſt reſolution to be propoſed would be ſimilar to the firſt of thoſe agreed upon by the Britiſh Parliament, "that it will be adviſeable to concur in ſuch meaſures as may beſt tend to unite the two kingdoms into one," &c.

The firſt article to follow this reſolution would be, that for the purpoſes of eſtabliſhing ſuch an Union on this baſis, it would be fit to propoſe, that from the day of the two countries be united into one kingdom. The ſecond article would provide for the continuance of the ſucceſſion to the Crown, in the way at preſent limited. The third would declare the propriety of a common Legiſlature for both countries. The great object of this arrangement was the eſtabliſhing the identity of the Executive.

FINANCE.

Having made theſe preliminary obſervations, his Lordſhip proceeded to the detail of the principles which he was about to ſubmit to the conſideration of the Houſe. He would begin, he ſaid, with the queſtion of contribution to the general expences of the empire, and afterwards proceed to the commercial detail.—The enemies of this meaſure had founded much of their clamour upon a ſuppoſition that it was a financial project of the Britiſh Miniſter. The ſtatement he would now lay before the Houſe would, his Lordſhip ſaid, prove that it was a ſacrifice of money made by Great Britain to her own loſs, and the advantage to Ireland. But he deſired not to be underſtood as holding out any propoſition to the Irish Parliament, in which it could be ſuggeſted that pecuniary advantage was given in compenſation for loſs of the honour or intereſts of Ireland. The offer was on the broad principle of a fair mutual agreement.

The

The immediate effect of the principle he would offer would be, that *Ireland would, in case of an Union, be taxed considerably less than if she remained separate.* In retrospect to past expences, Ireland was to have *no concern whatever with the debt of Great Britain*;—but henceforward the two countries were to unite as to future expences, on a strict measure of relative ability. He should have considered it a most valuable circumstance in this arrangement, if the countries could have been so completely incorporated as not to have had distinct revenues; a part of the system of the Scots Union, which had been felt to be of such importance, that a great effort was made to equalize the circumstances of the two countries for that purpose; England had a large debt; Scotland had none charged upon her revenues: An accurate calculation was made of the sum to be paid to Scotland to justify her in accepting her share of the debt, and the sum was paid accordingly by England. The taxation of the two countries was accordingly fixed at the same proportion, except in the instance of the land-tax, which was fixed at a different ratio, because the land-tax in England was imposed so unequally, that had Scotland paid in the same rate as the nominal land-tax of England, she would really have been taxed much higher than her just proportion. His Lordship mentioned this, he said, to shew the pains which had been taken to incorporate the two countries as as well in point of finance as in other circumstances; but in the present situation of these countries, this part of the system could not be adopted. Great Britain now paid in taxes for interest on her debt ten millions annually; for any proportion of this she could not call upon Ireland, nor could she offer, as in the case of Scotland, any equivalent; it was therefore absolutely necessary that the respective debts of the countries should remain distinct, and of course that their taxations should continue separate. In order then to find the sum which Ireland should contribute to the Imperial expences, it would be necessary to seek for a criterion by which to judge of her relative ability, and settling her expences in such proportion as should be the result of that enquiry. The best criterion of ability, as embracing all kinds of possession and expence, was an income tax; this was not a criterion to be found in Ireland, nor was it likely that for some time our local circumstances could permit its operation, so that some other must be sought. The next best test of ability would be found in examining the relative commercial wealth of both countries, and the relative expences of both in articles of luxury; and if it should be found that these two proportions very nearly coincided with each other, it ought to be fairly pronounced that the best means of judging of the relative ability of the countries had been discovered. Taking then the exports and imports for the last three years, those of Ireland would be found to be - - L. 10,925,000
Great Britain, - 73,961,000
In the proportion of seven to one. The next part of the proportion was to be found in excised articles of consumption, such as malt, beer, spirits, wine, tea, tobacco, &c. The average of these for the last three years has been—
Ireland - - L. 5,954,000
Great Britain, - 46,891,000
Being in the proportion of seven seven-eighths to one. As the results of these two proportions came so very close to each other, he would assume them as just, and take seven one-half to one as the just ratio of the ability of Great Britain to that of Ireland.

The next article would go to give to Ireland a community of property in the territorial revenue of Great Britain (though Ireland was not called on for a shilling of the debt by which it had been obtained), and upon this principle the actual advantage to Ireland in 2 15ths of her share of the sum paid by the East India Company, would amount to 60,000l. annually. It might be objected that these proportions, however just at this day, might hereafter, from circumstances, become unfair; this it was proposed to obviate, by giving a power to the Imperial Parliament to revise them in 20 years hence, upon the same principles on which they were now supported. He would propose that the revenues of Ireland should form a consolidated fund, on which the interest of her own debt should be charged, and of which the remainder should go to her share of the Imperial

contribation. It would be propoſed, that no article ſhould at any time be ſubject in Ireland to a higher tax than the ſame article paid in Great Britain.

The next proviſion would be that any ſurpluſſes which ſhould remain of this conſolidated fund, might be appied to local purpoſes of improvement, or to accumulate to form a fund for war contributions: And here his Lordſhip ſtated a difference between the ſituation of Great Britain and Ireland, which required ſome conſideration. Great Britain raiſed a great proportion of her war expences within the year; this iſland had not ability ſo to do: The conſequence of which was, that Ireland muſt, if ſhe continued ſeparate or united with Great Britain, get into debt much faſter in proportion than Great Britain. By this arrangement, her immediate expences being reduced, ſhe would be able to appropriate more of her revenues to the purpoſes of war, and of courſe not haſten ſo much into debt; while, by the ſalutary operation of the ſinking fund, it was not impoſſible that at ſome period not very remote, Great Britain ſhould liquidate ſo much of her debt as to deſcend in point of debt to nearly her proportion with reſpect to Ireland; and if this ſhould ever occur, it would be right to leave to the United Parliament a power of fixing the ſame ſcale of reduced taxation for the United Kingdoms. To ſhew how much more rapidly Ireland, as a ſeparate kingdom, incurred debt than Great Britain, he ſtated that, at the commencement of the war, the debt of Great Britain was to Ireland as twenty-ſix to one; it was now as thirteen to one. His Lordſhip then ſtated, that it was intended to make proviſion for a certain ſum out of the revenues of Ireland, to be appropriated to thoſe laudable inſtitutions which had annually experienced the bounty of the Irish Parliament; ſuch as the Proteſtant Charter Schools, the Dublin Society, &c. To ſhew the operation of the proportion of ſeven one-half to one between Britiſh and Iriſh contributions, his Lordſhip ſtated that the peace eſtabliſhment of Great Britain (exclusive of intereſt for debt) was

L. 5,800,000

That of Ireland, 1,216,000

Now proportion of 5 3-fourths

to 1

The war eſtabliſhment of

Great Britain, 27,000,000

Of Ireland, 3,076,000

almoſt nine to one. Taking a mean between theſe proportions, it was 2 1-8th to 1.

The proportions of years of peace to thoſe of war, during the preſent century, had been ſix years of peace to one of war, which produced a further mean of 7 3-4ths to one. Nearly this was the proportion now propoſed of 7 1-half to 1.

To ſhew the operation of this proportion, his Lordſhip ſtated the total expenditure of Great Britain laſt year, at - - - L. 32,700,000

That of Ireland, 5,439,000

Total (Britiſh money) L. 38,139,000

According to the proportion of 7 one-half the expenditure of Britain would have been - L. 33,699,000

Of Ireland, - - 4,441,000

Making a ſaving to the country of the actual expence of nearly one million ſterling, which million will, in effect, be thrown upon the ſhoulders of the Britiſh Miniſter to provide for, inſtead of giving him any financial advantage by the propoſed Union. (Here his Lordſhip took a view of the peace eſtabliſhment and revenue, by which it appeared that there was an annual deficiency of 600,000l. But, in caſe of an Union, Ireland would gain half a million in aid of the peace eſtabliſhment.) Having ſtated the financial part, his Lordſhip proceeded to the

Commercial

Part of the ſyſtem. This, he ſaid, was not materially different from that ſo ably ſupported by the Speaker in 1785, excepting that it went beyond it in ſome points of advantage to Ireland. The circumſtances of the two countries at this period did not admit of a complete incorporation of commercial intereſts, becauſe ſome of our manufactures were not ſufficiently advanced to proceed without protecting duties, and the unequal burdens borne by the Britiſh manufacturers, from their greater ſhare of taxation, rendered it impracticable to adjuſt this part of the ſyſtem on any other principle than that of perfect freedom of export between the countries. The only principles which could be followed under theſe circumſtances were, that articles ex-

ported

ported to Great Britain ſhould pay, on the import, a duty equal to the duty paid at home by the Britiſh ſubject on the ſame article. One important article to Ireland, his Lordſhip mentioned, was that of ſail-cloath; by the preſent law of Great Britain every veſſel ſailing out of Great Britain muſt on her firſt voyage have a full ſuit of Britiſh ſail-cloath, and the whole navy was now furniſhed with Britiſh ſail cloath: It was to be propoſed that Iriſh ſail-cloath ſhould be entitled to ſhare all the advantages and preference thus ſecured to Britain. This, he truſted, conſidering the capacity of Ireland to furniſh the article, would prove a new ſource of wealth to Ireland. To effect the complete freedom of export, it was intended to propoſe, that, after a certain day, all prohibitions, bounties, and drawbacks (excepting thoſe under the corn laws), ſhould ceaſe and be at an end; thus ſecuring to Ireland for ever the advantage of all thoſe raw materials which ſhe now receives from Great Britain, many of which are of the moſt urgent neceſſity, as coals, ſalt, hops, &c. In this inſtance, the preſent offer outwent that of 1785; for, by the propoſitions of 1785, coals were to have paid a duty, by this they pay none, and though Great Britain raiſes a revenue of 5s. 6d. a chaldron on her own coals carried coaſtways, they are to be exported to Ireland duty-free. By the propoſitions of 1785, wool was withheld from this country by the jealouſy of the Britiſh manufacturers: that jealouſy is removed, and the article of wool was to be exported to this country duty-free. As to the linen manufacture, much has been ſaid as to the advantages it had received from a local Parliament; he denied that a local Parliament had given it thoſe advantages; it was the Britiſh Parliament, which, by laying a duty of 33l. per cent. on German linens, and admitting Iriſh duty-free, gave, in effect ſo much bounty on Iriſh linens as the ſame 33l. per cent. on Iriſh linens would produce. The quantity of linens imported to Great Britain was 50 millions of yards, of which 33 millions came from Ireland. The duty of 33 per cent. on theſe 33 millions of yards would amount to a million ſterling; which million, equal almoſt to our peace eſtabliſhment, was in effect raiſed on the Britiſh conſumer, to be paid to the Iriſh linen merchant. But it had been urged that this bounty was in conſequence of a compact, by which the Iriſh Parliament gave up the woollen, in conſideration of the linen manufacture. It was a compact of a very ſingular kind, by which the Britiſh Parliament ſhould give up an annual million ſterling, in return for a trade whoſe utmoſt groſs produce to Ireland, was never more than 600,000l. But this as it might, Ireland was by the preſent propoſal put in full poſſeſſion of both parts of the compact: the bounty would be continued, and ſhe had an unlimited ſhare in the woollen manufacture, with the advantage of importing the raw materials from Britain, duty-free; it was not intended to continue any duties on import between the countries, excepting thoſe which were in the nature of protecting duties; and as protecting duties had for their purpoſe to aſſiſt infant and growing manufactures, he would propoſe, that as they might, if rendered perpetual, become injurious inſtead of uſeful, it ſhould be left to the Imperial Parliament to lower or regulate them on this principle at the end of twenty years. His Lordſhip then went into a minute calculation of the ratio of the protecting duties, to be continued. The next article went to eſtabliſh the proportion of the countervailing duties; to be ſettled on the ſame principles. The two next reſolutions went merely to eſtabliſh this principle, That foreign produce, paſſing through either country into the other, ſhould be admitted as if imported directly from the place of its growth or manufacture. This, his Lordſhip conſidered as an advantage of the very higheſt importance to Ireland, whoſe ſituation adapted it ſo much better than Great Britain for the admiſſion of ſuch goods, and their tranſmiſſion to other countries, thus avoiding the tedious and dangerous navigation of the narrow ſeas: and when it was conſidered that the re-export trade of Britain amounted to fourteen millions Sterling annually, it would be admitted that the proſpect of advantage from this part of the ſyſtem, was well worth the attention of this country. The natural conſequence of this part of the arrangement muſt be, that one or two ports of Ireland ſhould be al-

lowed to import foreign goods free of duty, to be bonded until time for re-exportation: And here, his Lordſhip aſked, whether the cities of Dublin and Cork were likely to ſuffer by theſe regulations, which would open to them ſuch proſpects of commercial wealth and proſperity? He then proceeded to ſhew the advantages which the proviſion trade of this country would derive from the propoſed ſyſtem. Upon the regulation duties of the two countries, it would appear, that by Ireland giving up 76,000l. of duties, and Britain giving 85,000l. of ſimilar duties, the advantage would be decidedly on the part of Ireland. This is but a brief abſtract of the commercial detail of his Lordſhip's ſpeech, which he concluded by ſaying, that he truſted it would appear to the country found in the principle on which it proceeded, and juſt in the detail. His Lordſhip then proceeded to that part of the arrangement which affected the

Church Eſtabliſhment.

The preſent church eſtabliſhment of Ireland, as long as it continued ſeparate from that of Great Britain, could never hope to defend itſelf, againſt the perpetual attacks made upon it upon local grounds, and againſt the popular argument of phyſical force: there appeared to him no poſſibility of giving it ſecurity in any other way than by a complete incorporation with that of Great Britain. While the preſent ſyſtem continued, and while it continued likely that various perſons might be called to the Councils of Great Britain, ſo long would this country be liable to the operation of various politics: one Miniſter might wiſh to uphold the preſent eſtabliſhment, and another the ſyſtem of excluſion as the beſt bond of connection. Another might wiſh to throw himſelf upon the population of the country, and to open the eſtabliſhment to every claimant. Under ſuch a courſe of policy, the country could not hope for quiet: The Proteſtant, as long as the eſtabliſhment remained ſeparate, and was to be defended on local grounds, would feel himſelf inſecure, and of courſe look with jealouſy upon the Catholic; the Catholic, relying on the arguments of phyſical force, would endeavour to aſſert his claims againſt the eſtabliſhment of a minority, and there appeared no hope of a termination to diſtruſt, jealouſy, and alarm. But the eſtabliſhment being incorporated, the Proteſtant would feel himſelf ſupported on the broad baſis of an Imperial eſtabliſhment, where his property would have due weight, and the maſs of population would include him. —The cauſe of diſtruſt being removed, the claims of the Catholic might be temperately heard and calmly diſcuſſed before an Imperial Tribunal, an Imperial Parliament, who would decide on the queſtion diveſted of thoſe local circumſtances which ſerved to irritate and inflame.—As to

Repreſentation,

He would not enter into argument with thoſe who thought nothing but a majority, or at leaſt an equality of repreſentatives, could ſecure the intereſts of Ireland in the Imperial Parliament. With ſuch men it avails nothing to argue, that theſe intereſts were not deſigned to be perpetually diſtinct; their doctrine went to prove that ſeparate parliaments and perpetual hoſtility between them, could alone ſerve the intereſts of Ireland. The propoſition on this ſubject proceeded on the ſame principle with that adopted in Scotland, that after incorporation the ſeparate intereſts became one common intereſt, and that the proportion to be taken is the ratio of the wealth and population of each country.—The population of Ireland was called four millions, that of Great Britain ten millions, more than two to one.—Two to one population—five and a half to one contribution, gives a medium of about five to one: So that to the Britiſh Houſe of Commons of 558, it was propoſed to add 100 Iriſh Members. To the Peers in the proportion of 32, viz. 4 Biſhops and 28 Temporal Peers; but as by the Scots Union, there were already 16 elective Peers determination on each Parliament, it was propoſed, as more conſonant to the conſtitution of the Peerage, to make 32 Iriſh Peers, when elected, Peers of parliament for life. Thoſe Engliſh Commoners who had accepted Iriſh titles, were to be permitted to continue to ſit as Commoners, on waving their privilege as Peers of Ireland. As to the repreſentation of the Commons it was propoſed to ſtrengthen the popular part of the repreſentation. In Scotland, 45 members were returned

30 for counties, 15 for cities and boroughs.—The Irish counties would remain as they were, returning 64 Members, so that 36 would be for cities and boroughs. Two ways were offered of reducing their number: One by classing two together to return one member; the other by taking away the privilege of returning members from the greater number of them; the latter, from the experience of the former made in Scotland, he would be inclined to prefer. Dublin and Cork to return two each, as at present, the University one, and thirty-one other borough towns, to be estimated as to wealth and population by the returns of window-tax and hearth-money, to return one each. It must occur to the House, that for the great number to be thus disfranchised, it would be necessary to adopt a measure of compensation to those individuals, who should be injured by this arrangement. And having thus gone through the outline of the plan, his Lordship said he trusted he had stated enough to shew, that the proposal was such a one as it was honest in Great Britain to make, and honourable for Ireland to accept: one which would remove those anomalities from the executive to which it was perpetually liable; one which would relieve the apprehensions of those who feared that Ireland should be saddled with the expences of Great Britain, by establishing a just and fair principle of taxation from one which goes to discharge Ireland of the payment of one million of money in war, and half a million in peace, and which would place Ireland in such circumstances as would enable us to look at our situation with satisfaction, by making the church establishments one, and consolidating the Legislatures of the empire. All present apprehension would be quieted, and future peace secured; the great question which has agitated Ireland would be put upon the broad principles of imperial policy, and divested of local prejudices, would be deliberately and maturely weighed, and such a representation would be established for the country, as should give the nation such an interest in it, as to lay asleep for ever the dreadful question of parliamentary reform, which, acting upon the religious divisions of the country, had produced such calamities to Ireland. His Lordship then said it was his intention to move to have the papers printed and circulated.

After a debate of considerable warmth at half past twelve on Thursday, the House divided;

Ayes for going into the discussion of Union,	-	158
Noes,	- -	115
Majority,		43

Adjourned.

MONTHLY REGISTER.

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

FRANCE.

No sooner had Buonaparte seized on the reins of government, than he began to display his accustomed promptitude both in council and the field. And he has already achieved in a few days what the late Directory were unable to accomplish during the plenitude of their power, and the duration of their authority.

Taking advantage of a rigorous season, which had produced a cessation of hostilities on the frontiers, he marched large bodies of troops under Brune and Hedouville, two able and experienced leaders, against the insurgent departments of the West, and has slaughtered, subdued, dispersed, or reduced to unconditional submission, the numerous and warlike bands of armed peasantry, who threatened France on one hand with a civil war, while they continued, on the other, to render some of her most fertile provinces a burden, rather than an advantage.

In fine, several of the chiefs, such as Gorges and Frotte, have been obliged to surrender; the inhabitants of both sides of the Loire have laid down their arms; and, as their priests are now restored to them, and their leaders have lost their confidence, there is no great likelihood that they will become speedily formidable.

ITALY.

It would appear the French General Massena, who has taken the command of

of the army of Italy, has obtained ſome ſlight advantages: but theſe conſiſt merely of the temporary poſſeſſion of open towns, or an accidental ſuperiority in reſpect to foraging parties; for the main bodies are at preſent endeavouring to recruit their exhauſted ſtrength, while the different courts are "ſounding the dreadful note of preparation."

EGYPT.

Conſiderable uncertainty remains concerning the preſent ſituation of Egypt. According to the *Intercepted Letters* publiſhed in this country, the French there are reduced by diſeaſe, diſaſter, and death, to a moſt deplorable condition! But, if we are to believe more recent and public accounts, circulated in Paris, the whole of Kleber's army is now clothed, while the greater part of the forces in Upper Egypt has been mounted on dromedaries, in ſhort, we are aſſured, that they are in a moſt excellent condition, fit for freſh toils, capable of new victories!

GERMANY.

Auſtria ſeems now to be very formidable, in conſequence of the undeviating policy of her councils, and the recent ſucceſs of her arms. Subſidized to fight her own battles, ſhe has uniformly taken advantage of circumſtances, and at length acquired the dominion of a great kingdom. In fine, ſuch has been the peculiar good fortune of the Imperial Houſe, and ſo extraordinary the effect of its treaties and intrigues, that, were it to ceaſe hoſtilities before the date of another campaign be tried, there is but little doubt that he would not only be amply recompenſed for the loſs of the Netherlands, but alſo for the expences of the war.

PRUSSIA.

On the 3d of January, died, at Berlin, the chief of all the ſtatemen in Europe, the Pruſſian miniſter of ſtate, Count Finkenſtein, in the 85th year of his age. In the year 1735, he entered on his diplomatic career, as ambaſſador to the court of Sweden; from 1740 to 1743, he was at the Daniſh court; after which he was ſent to the King of England, George II. who was then on the banks of the Rhine, on buſineſs of great importance; he was afterward ambaſſador at Peterſburgh, where he remained a twelvemonth, when he was appointed to the important ſtation of miniſter of the cabinet, which he held ever ſince 1749, full fifty years.—The King ſtill adheres to neutrality.

RUSSIA.

The Emperor ſeems rather diſguſted with his Imperial ally, and has actually iſſued orders for the return of his troops. This circumſtance, which is likely to give a new complexion to the war, has been differently accounted for: it having been maintained, on one hand, that the Czar had haughtily demanded the diſmiſſion of all the Auſtrian generals lately employed in Switzerland; while it has been aſſerted, on the other, that this prince has generouſly, but unſucceſſfully, inſiſted on the reſtoration of the Italian States, and the reintegration of the French monarchy.

JAMAICA.

Private letters from Jamaica, of the 8th December, contained the important information of a very extenſive and alarming conſpiracy having been detected in that iſland. The authors of it are ſaid to have been the negroes imported from St Domingo, who prevailed upon a large body of negroes in Jamaica to join them. Its object was to ſet fire, at the ſame time, to Kingſton, Port Royal, and Spaniſh Town; to break open the ſtores, ſtave the rum puncheons, and maſſacre all that oppoſed them. The plan was completely arranged. Flags had been procured with devices, repreſenting on each a black man and mulatto, mounting a tri-coloured cockade, and a white man, whom the black was depicted in the attitude of whipping.

The conſpirators, confident of ſucceſs, were incautious. The flags were paraded, and an alarm excited. The diſcovery, however, is ſtated to have been made by a printer of the name of Smart. Lord Balcarras, the governor, inſtantly ordered out the military; ſtrong detachments were ſent to the different towns, parties diſpatched to ſcour the country parts, and every meaſure of vigour and vigilance was adopted. In conſequence of theſe exertions the alarm ſoon ſubſided, and

public

public ſecurity was ſpeedily re-eſtabliſhed. Two perſons, who were taken up as accomplices, are ſaid to have confeſſed that the conſpiracy was to have been put in execution the 6th of January, had it not been for the diſcovery thus made.

LONDON.

A proclamation has been iſſued for a general faſt on the 12th of next month.

A duel was fought between Mr Grattan and Mr Corry, the chancellor of the exchequer, in Ireland, owing to ſome words in the debate on the Union. The latter was wounded in the wriſt, and the ball extracted near the elbow.

A common hall was held at Guild-hall, in conſequence of the requiſition made to the Lord Mayor for that purpoſe. Mr Waithman came forward, and in a ſhort ſpeech, went over ſome of the leading features in the preſent conteſt. He concluded by moving, "That a petition be preſented to the honourable Houſe of Commons, upon the preſent ſtate of public affairs, and praying them to take ſuch meaſures as they may think moſt proper toward promoting an immediate negociation with the government of France, for the purpoſe of reſtoring the bleſſings of peace;" which was agreed to.

EDINBURGH.

Feb. 20. On Saturday laſt, at Glaſgow, a mob of diſorderly perſons, under pretence of ſearching for meal, &c, alleged to be concealed in various parts of the city, excited a conſiderable degree of alarm, but by the timely and ſpirited exertions of the Magiſtrates, they were ſoon diſperſed. Several perſons apprehended, and order and tranquillity reſtored.

On the 20th, came on, at Inverkeithing, the election of a Member to ſerve in Parliament for the boroughs of that diſtrict, when the delegates for Inverkeithing and Stirling voted for Sir John Henderſon of Fordel, Bart. and the delegates for Dumfermline, Culroſs, and Queenſferry, voted for the Hon. Captain Cochrane, of the Royal Navy. But objections having been ſtated to the commiſſions of two of the delegates in Captain Cochrane's intereſt, the merits of the return in his favour remain to be diſcuſſed before a Committee of the Houſe of Commons.

22. On Monday a General Court-Martial met at the Caſtle here, and proceeded to the trial of Lieut. George Philip, of the Forfarſhire militia, on charges exhibited againſt him by Lord Douglas, Colonel of the regiment. The charges againſt the priſoner were for fraudulent practices in the courſe of recruiting men for the regiment laſt ſummer, which are detailed into a number of minute particulars that would be no ways intereſting to our readers in general.

The Court gave a diſtinct opinion on each charge, and conclude their ſentence as follows:

On the whole, the Court, taking into conſideration the whole circumſtances of the caſe, and that the priſoner, tho' found guilty of an impropriety of conduct, in relation to ſome of the matters of charge, is, in their opinion, not chargeable with any act poſitively of ſuch a nature as to be deemed unworthy of the character of an officer or a gentleman: And, moreover, taking into their conſideration the great length of time that the priſoner has been under arreſt, they are of opinion, that the puniſhment to be awarded ſhould, on theſe accounts, be the leſs ſevere; and, therefore, they do hereby adjudge the ſaid Lieut. George Philip to be *reprimanded* in ſuch mode, and in ſuch terms, as to the Right Hon. the Commander in Chief ſhall ſeem proper.

Adjutant General's Office, Edinburgh Feb. 27. 1800.

General Orders.—The whole having been laid before Lieutenant General the Earl of Clanricarde, his Lordſhip has approved of the ſame, and accordingly directs, that the ſaid Lieut. George Philip ſhall be reprimanded on the public parade, by the Right Hon. Lord Douglas, Colonel of the Forfarſhire militia, in ſuch terms as to his Lordſhip ſhall ſeem proper.

At an extraordinary meeting of the Highland Society, held on Monday the 22d, a variety of premiums were voted to be diſtributed for encouraging the cultivation of an early crop of potatoes this ſeaſon.

A ſubſcription is going on at Aberdeen for building a life boat, ſimilar to that uſed at Shields, which has been the means of ſaving many ſhipwrecked ſeamen from periſhing; it is ſo conſtructed that it cannot ſink nor upſet.

The Juſtices of the Underward of Lanark-

Lanarkſhire, fined twenty perſons, in the New Town of Glaſgow, without the royalty, for making uſe of light weights; they were moſtly grocers, bakers, and ſhellers.

The areas oppoſite to the eaſt front of the College were expoſed to ſale, in the Old Juſticiary Court Room, in five lots, the upſet price of each lot being 1500l. Sterling. They ſold as follows:

Firſt or north lot at,	L. 2110
Second, - - -	1710
Third, - - - -	1700
Fourth, - - -	1600
Fifth, - - -	2030

The bill prohibiting bread from being expoſed to ſale in leſs than 24 hours after baking, under a penalty of 5l. for each loaf ſo expoſed, operates in London from the 26th inſt. and throughout the country from the 4th of March.

Liſt of Accidents during the Month.

4. Three men and two boys unfortunately drowned by a boat overſetting in Leith roads.

19. A ſhip carpenter killed by a fall.

20. A coining houſe in Glaſgow broken into, but no money got.---A boy killed by a fall on the iron rails in the New Town.---A maſon killed at Kirkbrachead by a ſtone falling on him.

26. A woman's body found drowned in the entrance to Leith harbour.

The weather during the month of February has been unuſually dry. Though the froſt has ſometimes been pretty ſevere, yet the purpoſes of agriculture have been anſwered, and great progreſs made towards preparing the ground for the ſpring crop. We underſtand that a conſiderable quantity of barley, wheat has been ſown. Excepting the vegetables, proviſions have been pretty reaſonable, beef and mutton never have exceeded 3l. per ſtone, the average 2l. 10s. This continues to be brought to market in conſiderable quantity, and the beſt cattle are ſtill in the field.

The Engliſh Agricultural Report ſays, that however unfavourable the ſeaſon of the froſt and ſubſequent rains of ſeveral months might be to the roots of the young wheats, and to the carrying on of the various huſbandry operations, the ſeaſon of the greateſt part of the month, has ſeemed very favourably to reſtore the injuries that were ſuſtained. The wheat crops, for the moſt part, but more eſpecially ſuch as had the advantage of being put into the ground early, are conſiderably improved in their appearance, particularly ſo far as reſpects their vigour and colour. Moſt of the hay diſtricts, particularly thoſe of the later kinds, have had their fields well coated and properly wrought in. Dung has likewiſe been carried out on thoſe fallows which are intended for barley in the more ſouthern counties, ſuch fallows being now in a conſiderable ſtate of preparation in theſe places. *Cattle*.—The dearneſs and ſcarcity of hay, and many other articles neceſſary to the feeding and fattening of animals, added to the extenſive ſale of them for ſome time paſt in a half fed ſtate, muſt render good fat ſtock extremely ſcarce and high in price. And lean ſtock will ſoon, no doubt, conſiderably advance, as the demand is daily increaſing. *Beef* brings, in Smithfield, ſinking the offal, from 3s. 4d. to 5s. 2d. per ſtone of eight pounds.

The Public Funds continued pretty ſteady for ſeveral weeks, notwithſtanding the expectation of a large loan, 3 per cent Conſols being from 60 to 61 from the beginning of the month to the 21ſt, the day on which the loan was negotiated, when they got to 63, but fell a little the next day. The amount of the loan was fixed at 20,500,000l. making 32,285,000l. new ſtock, and though it was taken on terms leſs advantageous to the ſubſcribers than any of the loans during the preſent war, it immediately bore a premium from 2 to 3 per cent. which, however, has ſince been ſomewhat leſs.

*** *On account of the importance of the Parliamentary Intelligence, the Liſts are delayed till next month.*

Haddington, Feb. 27.

Wheat, 50s. Barley, 42s. Oats, 38s. Peaſe, 48s. Beans, 44s.

Edinburgh, Feb. 28. Oat-meal, 2s. 8d. Bear meal, 2s. 8d. Peaſe-meal, 1s. 10d.

PRICES OF STOCKS.

	Feb. 7.	Feb. 24.
Bank Stock	156¼	156¼
3 per cent. red.	61⅝	61¾
3 per cent. conſ.	61	62⅛
4 per cent. anns.	78⅜	80
India Stock	200½	200
Engliſh Let. Tic.	——	——
Iriſh Let. Tic.	——	——